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POND'S MURRAY'S GRAMMAR.

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MURRAY'S SYSTEM

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

IMPROVED

AND ADAPTED TO THE PRESENT MODE OF INSTRUCTION IN THIS BRANCH OF SCIENCE.

LARGER ARRANGEMENT.

BY ENOCH POND, D.D.,
PROFESSOR IN THE BANGOR THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY.

TENTH EDITION.

WORCESTER:
PUBLISHED BY DORR, HOWLAND, AND CO.
1839.

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DISTRICT OF MASSACHUSETTS, *to wit:*

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BE IT REMEMBERED, that on the fourteenth day of January, A. D. 1829, in the fifty-third year of the Independence of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, *Dorr and Howland* of the said district, have deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof they claim as proprietors, in the words following, *to wit:* "Murray's System of English Grammar. Improved and adapted to the present mode of instruction in this branch of science. Larger Arrangement. By ENOCH POND."

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JNO. W. DAVIS, *Clerk of the District of Massachusetts*

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PREFACE.

Two years ago, the Compiler published an epitome of grammar, designed particularly for those who are commencing the study in common English Schools. It was intended to "contain all that would be necessary, with the assistance of an Instructer, in order to parse English with propriety—and no more." Accordingly it embraced little more than general principles, excluding for the most part those explanations and critical remarks, which are absolutely necessary for the accomplished grammarian. The work, thus far, is supposed to have answered the end for which it was designed, and has shared, to a flattering extent, the approbation and patronage of the public. The *arrangement* has been thought, by good judges, to present peculiar facilities to the learner, and to be specially fitted for the use of classes in common schools.

It has occurred to the Compiler, since the publication of that little work, that a much larger one might be prepared, on the same general plan, and that the benefits of the arrangement there introduced might in this way be extended. This suggestion has given rise to the follow-

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ing pages. . The work here presented to the public embraces the previous one entire, with its Lessons, Questions, and Illustrations. Immediately following most of the Lessons will be found, in smaller type, what is called a *Review*, containing such remarks, explanations, and examples, as were thought necessary to exhibit the subject to advantage. This part the scholar is expected to omit, until, having made some proficiency in parsing, his grammar is more thoroughly reviewed. Questions are for the most part appended, not only to the Lessons, but to the Review.

Immediately following the Rules and their explanations, are *Exercises in false Syntax*. These are thought to be an important part of the system, and it is earnestly recommended that every scholar be required to correct them. Perhaps the most eligible mode of doing this will be to take the Exercises as lessons in parsing.

That part of the work which succeeds to the Exercises, should be carefully studied when the grammar is reviewed. This may not be necessary in order to correct syntactical parsing, but it is necessary to a proper understanding of the general principles of language.

I call this work a compilation, because, to a very considerable extent, it is so. The greater part of it is extracted from the different publications of Mr. Murray. In selecting, arranging, and sometimes altering, I have exercised my own judgement, and much that is original will be found. It is believed that the work, wherever introduced, will not only answer every purpose which could be answered by Murray's larger abridgement—but supplies some defects which attach to that work—

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has superior advantages, particularly on the score of arrangement—and is, on the whole, better adapted for the use of schools.

Much is said in some parts of our country on the propriety of discarding Murray's system entirely, and of adopting what are regarded as more philosophical views. But after considerable reflection on the subject, the writer is satisfied that nothing would be gained, but much lost, by such a procedure. Indeed he is satisfied that what are thought by some to be more philosophical views are not so in reality. We accord due praise to the celebrated Horne Tooke for tracing the derivation of many of our small words; but the more interesting question, after all, is, not what were these words originally?—but what are they now? *If*, *and*, and *but* may have been originally verbs in the imperative mode; but this does not prove that they are such now. They are used, at present, as *connective particles*, and the name *conjunction* is very fitly applied to them. *A* or *an* may be derived from *one*; and *the* may come from *that* or *these*; but these particles are now used in connexions where the adjective pronouns cannot be substituted for them with any tolerable sense or propriety, and consequently should be regarded as distinct parts of speech.

The writer has no difficulty with those who have means and leisure, and are disposed to amuse themselves with investigating the roots of English words; but they, who urge the results of such investigations to overturn the established principles of our language, allowing but two or three parts of speech; making no distinction between active, neuter, and passive verbs; admitting only three modes and tenses; with other inno-

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vations equally unfounded and ridiculous; and who would bring all this into common schools, under the imposing title of scientific and philosophical grammar;—such persons, he honestly thinks, might be better employed. It is obviously a much more useful exercise, to take the principles of our language, as taught by the best masters, and approved by standard English writers, and endeavour to simplify them, arrange them in the most natural order, and make them plain to the capacities of learners, than to raise new theories, however specious, and however captivating to the lovers of novelty.

Ward, April, 1828.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

LESSON I

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety.

It is divided into four parts, viz. ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the nature and power of letters, and the just method of spelling words.

REVIEW.

A letter is the first principle, or least part of a word.

The letters of the English language, called the English Alphabet, are twenty-six in number.

These letters are the representatives of certain articulate sounds, formed by the organs of speech, and are divided into vowels and consonants.

A vowel is an articulate sound, that can be perfectly uttered by itself; as, *a*, *e*, *o*, which are formed without the help of any other sound.

A consonant is an articulate sound, which cannot be perfectly uttered without the help of a vowel; as, *b*, *d*, *f*, *l*, which require vowels to express them fully.

The vowels are, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w*, and *y*.

W and *y*, are consonants when they begin a word or syllable; but in every other situation they are vowels

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels

The mutes cannot be sounded at all, without the aid of a vowel. They are *b*, *p*, *t*, *d*, *k*, and *c*, and *g*, hard.

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The semi-vowels have an imperfect sound of themselves. They are *f*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *v*, *s*, *z*, *x*, and *c*, and *g*, soft.

Four of the semi-vowels, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, are called liquids, from their readily uniting with other consonants, and flowing, as it were, into their sounds.

A diphthong is the union of two vowels, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice; as, *ea* in beat, *ou* in sound.

A triphthong is the union of three vowels, pronounced in like manner; as, *eau* in beau, *iew* in view.

A proper diphthong is that in which both the vowels are sounded; as, *oi* in voice, *ou* in ounce.

An improper diphthong has but one of the vowels sounded; as, *ea* in eagle, *oa* in boat.

QUESTIONS.

What is English Grammar?—Into how many parts is it divided?—What does Orthography teach?—

Questions on the Review.

What is a letter?—How are the letters divided?—What is a vowel?—What is a consonant?—When are *w* and *y* consonants?—How are the consonants divided?—Which are the mutes?—Which of the semi-vowels are called liquids?—What is a diphthong?—What is a triphthong?—What is the difference between a proper and an improper diphthong?—Is there a diphthong or triphthong in the word *heaven*?—Is it proper or improper?—How many vowels in the word *wonder*?—Is there a diphthong or triphthong in the word *youth*?—Is it proper or improper?—

LESSON II.

A SYLLABLE is a sound, either simple or compounded, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and constituting a word, or part of a word; as, *a*, *an*, *ant*.

Spelling is the art of rightly dividing words into their syllables, or of expressing a word by its proper letters.

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The following are the general rules for the division of words into syllables.

1. A single consonant between two vowels must be joined to the latter syllable: as, de-light, bri-dal, resource; except the letter x: as, ex-ist, ex-amine; and except likewise words compounded: as, up-on, un-even, dis-ease.

2. Two consonants proper to begin a word must not be separated: as, fa-ble, sti-fle. But when they come between two vowels, and are such as cannot begin a word, they must be divided: as, ut-most, un-der, in-sect, er-ror, cof-fin.

3. When three consonants meet in the middle of a word, if they can begin a word, and the preceding vowel is pronounced long, they are not to be separated: as, de-throne, de-stroy. But when the vowel of the preceding syllable is pronounced short, one of the consonants always belongs to that syllable: as, dis-tract, disprove, dis-train.

4. When three or four consonants, which are not proper to begin a syllable, meet between two vowels, such of them as can begin a syllable belong to the latter, the rest to the former syllable: as, ab-stain, com-plete, em-broil, trans-gress, dap-ple, con-strain, hand-some, parch-ment.

5. Two vowels, not being a diphthong, must be divided into separate syllables: as, cru-el, de-ni-al, so-ci-e-ty.

6. Compounded words must be traced into the simple words of which they are composed: as, ice-house, glow-worm, over-power, never-the-less.

7. Grammatical, and other particular terminations, are generally separated: as, teach-est, teach-eth, teaching, teach-er, contend-est, great-er, wretch-ed, goodness, free-dom, false-hood.

Words are articulate sounds, used by common consent, as signs of our ideas.

A word of one syllable is termed a monosyllable; a word of two syllables a dissyllable; a word of three syllables a trisyllable; and a word of four or more syllables a polysyllable.

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All words are either *primitive*, or *derivative*.

A primitive word is that which cannot be reduced to any simple word in the language; as, *man, good, child.*

A derivative word is that which may be reduced to another word in English of greater simplicity; as, *manful, goodness, contentment.*

There are many words which, though compounds in other languages, are primitives in English; as, *circumspect, delude, complicate, convent.*

QUESTIONS.

What is a syllable?—What are words?—What are words of three syllables called?—What are those of more than three syllables called?—How are words divided?—What is a primitive word?—What is a derivative?—Is the word *wisdom* primitive or derivative?—By which rule for the division of syllables is this word divided?—Is the word *freedom* primitive or derivative?—By which rule for the division of syllables is this word divided?—Similar questions may be answered respecting other words

LESSON III.

THE spelling of English words is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity, and can be acquired only by diligent attention to the spelling-book and dictionary. We present the following, however, as the *general* rules which, in spelling primitive and derivative words, have been most commonly received:

1. Monosyllables ending with *f, l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant: as, staff, mill, pass, &c. The only exceptions are, of, if, as, is, has, was, yes, his, this, us, and thus.

2. Monosyllables ending with any consonant but *f, l* or *s*, and preceded by a single vowel, never double the final consonant; excepting add, ebb, butt, egg, odd, err, inn, bunn, purr, and buzz.

3. Words ending with *y*, preceded by a consonant

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form the plurals of nouns, the persons of verbs, verbal nouns, past participles, comparatives, and superlatives, by changing *y* into *i*; as spy, spies; I carry, thou carriest; he carrieth, or carries; carrier, carried; happy, happier, happiest.

The present participle in *ing*, retains the *y*, that *i* may not be doubled; as carry, carrying; bury, burying, &c.

But *y* preceded by a vowel, in such instances as the above, is not changed; as boy, boys, I cloy, he cloys, cloyed, &c. except in lay, pay, and say; from which are formed, laid, paid, and said; and their compounds, unlaid, unpaid, unsaid, &c.

4. Words ending with *y*, preceded by a consonant, upon assuming an additional syllable beginning with a consonant, commonly change *y* into *i*; as happy, happily, happiness. But when *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is very rarely changed in the additional syllable: as coy, coyly; boy, boyish, boyhood; annoy, annoyer, annoyance; joy, joyless, joyful.

5. Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant, when they take another syllable beginning with a vowel; as wit, witty; thin, thinnish; to abet, an abettor; to begin, a beginner.

But if a diphthong precedes, or the accent is on the preceding syllable, the consonant remains single; as to toil, toiling; to offer, an offering; maid, maiden, &c.

6. Words ending with any double letter but *l*, and taking *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful*, after them, preserve the letter double: as harmlessness, carelessness, carelessly, stiffly, successful, distressful, &c. But those words which end with double *l*, and take *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful*, after them, generally omit one *l*: as fulness, skilless, fully, skilful, &c.

7. *Ness*, *less*, *ly*, and *ful*, added to words ending with silent *e*, do not cut it off; as paleness, guileless, closely, peaceful; except in a few words; as duly, truly, awful.

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8. *Ment*, added to words ending with silent *e*, generally preserves the *e* from elision: as, abatement, chastisement, incitement, &c.

Like other terminations, *ment* changes *y* into *i*, when preceded by a consonant: as, accompany, accompaniment; merry, merriment.

9. *Able* and *ible*, when incorporated into words ending with silent *e*, almost always cut it off: as, blame, blamable; cure, curable; sense, sensible, &c. : but if *c* or *g* soft comes before *e* in the original word, the *e* is then preserved in words compounded with *able*: as, change, changeable; peace, peaceable, &c.

10. When *ing* or *ish* is added to words ending with silent *e*, the *e* is almost universally omitted: as, place, placing; lodge, lodging; slave, slavish; prude, prudish; blue, bluish; white, whitish.

11. Compounded words are generally spelled in the same manner as the simple words of which they are formed; as, glasshouse, skylight, thereby, hereafter Many words ending with double *l*, are exceptions to this rule: as, already, welfare, wilful, fulfil: and also the words wherever, christmas, lammas, &c.

The orthography of a great number of English words, is far from being uniform, even amongst writers of distinction. Thus, *honour* and *honor*, *inquire* and *enquire*, *negotiate* and *negociate*, *control* and *controul*, *expense* and *expence*, *allege* and *alledge*, *surprise* and *surprize*, *complete* and *compleat*, *connexion* and *connection*, *abridgment* and *abridgement*, *judgment* and *judgement*, *acknowledgment* and *acknowledgement*, and many other orthographical variations, are to be met with in the best modern publications.

LESSON IV.

Inaccuracies to be corrected by the preceding Rules.

"Jacob worshiped his Creator, leaning on the top off his staff."

"A carr is a chariot of war"

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"In the names of druggs and plants, the mistake of a word may endanger life."

"Many a trapp is laid to ensnare the feet of youth"

"We should subject our fancys to the government of reason."

"It is a great blessing to have a sound mind, uninfluenced by fancyful humours."

"When we bring the lawmaker into contempt, we have in effect annuled his laws."

"By defering repentance, we accumulate sorrows."

"Restlesness of mind disqualifies us for the performance of duty."

"The arrows of calumny fall harmlesly at the feet of virtue."

"The road to the blisful regions is as open to the peasant as to the king."

"The silent stranger stood amazed to see
Contempt of wealth, and willful poverty."

"A Judicious arrangment of studies facilitates improvment."

"The object seems very desireable to us."

"We are made serviceable to others, as well as to ourselves."

"Our natural and involuntary defects of body are not chargable to us."

"These people salute one another, by touching the top of their forheads."

"We may be hurtfull to others by example, as well as by personal abuse."

"Knaveish tricks should meet with a severe reproof."

"A sprigg of myrtle." "The gras is green."

"The cheasecake is very rich."

"We prefer beefstake to venison."

"Please, sir, to make me a penn."

"Will you lend me your black lead penoil."

"His behavior was very obligeing."

"You appear uncommonly chearful."

"I think his conduct highly blamable."

"Every season has its peculiar beautys."

"Alexander was a most skilful horsman."

"Nor undelightful is the ceaseless hum
To him who muses through the woods at noon."

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"We ought to have denyed ourselves"
"All these with ceasless praise, his works behold,
Both day and night."
"The worship of God is an aweful service."
"Wisdom alone is truely fair."

The learner is requested not only to correct the preceding inaccuracies, but to refer to the rule, of which each is a violation.

LESSON V.

THE second part of Grammar is ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation.

There are in English nine sorts of words, or parts of speech, viz. the *article*, the *noun*, the *adjective*, the *pronoun*, the *verb*, the *adverb*, the *preposition*, the *conjunction*, and the *interjection*.

An ARTICLE is a word prefixed to nouns, to point them out, and to show how far their signification extends; as, *a* garden, *the* woman. —In English there are two articles, *a* and *the*. *A* becomes *an* before a vowel, or silent *h*; as, *an* acorn, *an* hour.

A or *an* is called the *indefinite* article; because it is used to point out one single thing of a kind, in other respects indeterminate; as, "Give me *a* book."

The is called the *definite* article; because it points out what particular thing of the kind is meant; as, "Give me *the* book."

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A noun, without any article to limit it, is taken in its widest sense.

A NOUN is the name of any thing that exists, or of which we have any notion; as, *man*, *virtue*, *Boston*. The noun may generally be distinguished by its taking an article before it, or by its making complete sense of itself. —Nouns are either *proper* or *common*. Proper nouns are the names appropriated to individuals; as, *George*, *London*. Common nouns stand for kinds, containing many sorts, or for sorts, containing many individuals under them: as, *animal*, *man*, *tree*.

Most nouns are either of the *second* or *third person*. They are of the third, when the thing signified is spoken *of*; and of the second, when it is spoken *to*.

They have also *gender*, *number*, and *case*.

QUESTIONS.

What is English Grammar?—Of what does Etymology treat?—How many parts of speech are there in English?—What are they?—What is an article?—How many articles are there in English?—When does *a* become *an*?—What is *a* or *an* called?—Why is it so called?—What is *the* called?—Why is it so called?—What is a noun?—How may the noun be distinguished?—What are proper nouns?—What are common nouns?—When are nouns of the third person; and when of the second?—What, besides person, have nouns?

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ILLUSTRATION.

"*James, give me the writing-book, with an inkstand, and a pen.*"

How many articles are there in this sentence?—Which is definite, and which are indefinite?—Why is *an* used, rather than *a*, before *inkstand*?—How many nouns are there in the sentence?—Which is proper, and which are common?—Which is in the second person, and which in the third?

"*Study the lesson an hour, William, and then you will write a few lines.*"

How many articles are there in this sentence?—Which is definite, and which indefinite?—Why is *an* used before *hour*?—Which of the nouns in the sentence are common, and which proper?—Which are in the third person, and which in the second?

REVIEW.

An must be used before a word beginning with an *h* that is not silent, if the accent is on the second syllable; as "an *heroic* action, an *historical* account."

A must be used rather than *an* before words beginning with *u* long; as a *union*, a *university*. *A* is also used before *one*; as *many a one*." &c.

The article is omitted before nouns denoting the different virtues, vices, passions, qualities, sciences, arts, metals, herbs, &c. as "prudence is commendable; falsehood is odious."

It is also omitted before *proper names*, except when they are used by way of distinction, or eminence; as "He is *a* Howard; "Every man is not *a* Newton."

When an adjective is used with a noun, it is commonly placed between the article and noun; as "an *agreeable* woman;" "a *virtuous* child." On some occasions,

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however, the adjective precedes the article; as "*Such* a shame;" "Too *careless* a writer."

The indefinite article is sometimes placed between the adjective *many*, and a singular noun; as "Full *many a gem*; Full *many a flower*."

(The indefinite article is joined to nouns in the *singular number only.*) Those nouns must be excepted which have an adjective before them expressing or implying number; as *a few houses; a dozen, a hundred, a thousand men.*

The definite article is joined to nouns in either number.

(The definite article is often applied to adverbs in the comparative and superlative degree;) as "*The* more I examine it *the* better I like it. I like this *the* least of any."

The article, though a small word, is a very important one; as on the correct position and proper use of it the sense of almost every sentence essentially depends.

It is thought by some, since *a* or *an* means *one*, and *the* means the same as *that* or *these*, that both the articles should be regarded as adjectives, or adjective pronouns. But it appears from the preceding examples that they are used in many instances where *one* could not be substituted for the indefinite article, or *that* or *these* for the definite, and make tolerable sense. Hence, whatever may have been their original signification, it is clear they are now to be regarded as constituting a distinct part of speech.

When proper nouns have an article annexed to them, they become common; as "He is the *Cicero* of his age." "He is reading the lives of the twelve *Cesars*." Common nouns may also be used to signify individuals, by the addition of articles or pronouns; as "*The boy* is studious; *that girl* is discreet."

Besides the division of nouns into common and proper, there are *collective* nouns; as, the *multitude*, the *people*, the *army*—*abstract* nouns, or the names of qualities; as, *goodness*, *whiteness*—and *verbal* or *participial* nouns; as, *beginning*, *reading*, *being*.

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Questions on the Review.

Is *an* ever used before a word beginning with *h* that is not silent?—Is *a* ever used before a word beginning with a vowel?—Before what nouns is the article commonly omitted?—Is the indefinite article ever joined to nouns in the plural number?—Is the article ever joined to any other words besides nouns?—What other kinds of nouns are there, except common and proper?

LESSON VI.

GENDER is the distinction of sex. There are three genders, the *masculine*, the *feminine*, and the *neuter*. The masculine gender denotes animals of the male kind; as, *man*, *horse*.—The feminine gender signifies animals of the female kind; as, *woman*, *hen*.—The neuter gender denotes objects which are neither male nor female; as, *house*, *garden*, &c.

NUMBER is the consideration of an object, as one, or more. Nouns are of two numbers, the singular and plural. The singular number expresses but one object; as, *chair*, *table*. The plural signifies more objects than one; as, *chairs*, *tables*. The plural of nouns is generally formed, by adding *s*, or *es*, to the singular; as, *dove*, *doves*; *box*, *boxes*.

Nouns in English have three CASES, the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*. —The nominative case simply expresses the name of a thing, or the subject of the verb; as, "The *boy* plays;" "The *girls* learn."—The possessive case expresses the relation of property, or possession; and has an apostrophe, with the letter *s* coming after it; as,

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"The *scholar's* duty;" "My *father's* house." When the plural ends in *s*, and commonly when the singular terminates in double *s*, the apostrophe alone is added; as, "On *eagles'* wings;" "For *goodness'* sake."—The objective case expresses the object of an action, or relation, and generally follows either an active verb, or a preposition; as, "John assists *Charles*;" "They live in *Boston*."

QUESTIONS.

What is gender?—How many genders are there?—What does the masculine gender denote?—What does the feminine?—What the neuter?—What is number?—Of how many numbers are nouns?—What does the singular number express?—What does the plural?—How is the plural of nouns generally formed?—How many cases have English nouns?—What does the nominative case express?—What is said of the possessive case?—What of the objective case?

ILLUSTRATION.

"*A man shall leave his father, and mother, and shall cleave unto his wife; and they shall be one flesh.*"

How many nouns are there in this sentence? Which of them are of the masculine gender?—Which feminine?—Which is neuter?—Are they of the singular or plural number?

"*The boy plays.*"—What gender, number, and case is *boy?*

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"*The girls learn.*"—What gender, number, and case is *girls?*

"*My father's house.*"—What case is *father's?*

"*For thy goodness' sake, forgive my sins.*"—What number, case, and gender is *goodness?*—What number, case, and gender is *sake?*—What number, case, and gender is *sins?*

"*Love to men.*"—What number, case, and gender is *men?*

REVIEW.

Some nouns literally neuter are used figuratively in the masculine or feminine gender; as when we say of the sun, *he* is sitting; or of a ship, *she* sails well. In this figurative way, we often speak of the moon, the earth, the church, a ship, a country, a city, virtue, fortune, &c. as *feminine*; and of the sun, time, a mighty river, &c. as *masculine*.

The English language has (three) methods of distinguishing the sex, viz.

1. By different words; as,

Male.	*Female.*	*Male.*	*Female.*
Bachelor.	Maid.	Husband.	Wife.
Boar.	Sow.	King.	Queen.
Boy.	Girl.	Lad.	Lass.
Brother.	Sister.	Lord.	Lady.
Buck.	Doe.	Man.	Woman.
Bull.	Cow.	(Master.	Mistress.
Bullock or Steer.	Heifer.	Milter.	Spawner.
		Nephew.	Niece.
Cock.	Hen.	Ram.	Ewe.
Dog.	Bitch.	Singer.	Songstress or Singer.
Drake.	Duck.		
Earl.	Countess.	Sloven.	Slut.
Father.	Mother.	Son.	Daughter.
Friar.	Nun.	Stag.	Hind.
Gander.	Goose.	Uncle.	Aunt.
Hart.	Roe.	Wizard.	Witch.
Horse.	Mare.		

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2. By a difference of termination; as,

Abbot.	Abbess.	Landgrave.	Landgravine.
Actor.	Actress.	Lion.	Lioness.
Administrator.	Administratrix.	Marquis.	Marchioness
Adulterer.	Adulteress.	Master.	Mistress.
Ambassador.	Ambassadress.	Mayor.	Mayoress.
Arbiter.	Arbitress.	Patron.	Patroness.
Baron.	Baroness.	Peer.	Peeress.
Bridegroom.	Bride.	Poet.	Poetess.
Benefactor.	Benefactress.	Priest.	Priestess.
Caterer.	Cateress.	Prince.	Princess.
Chanter.	Chantress.	Prior.	Prioress.
Conductor.	Conductress.	Prophet.	Prophetess.
Count.	Countess.	Protector.	Protectress.
Deacon.	Deaconess.	Shepherd.	Shepherdess.
Duke.	Dutchess.	Songster.	Songstress.
Elector.	Electress.	Sorcerer.	Sorceress.
Emperor.	Empress.	Sultan.	Sultaness.
Enchanter.	Enchantress.		Sultana.
Executor.	Executrix.	Tiger.	Tigress
Governor.	Governess.	Traitor.	Traitress.
Heir.	Heiress.	Tutor.	Tutoress.
Hero	Heroine.	Viscount.	Viscountess.
Hunter.	Huntress.	Votary.	Votaress.
Host.	Hostess.	Widower.	Widow.
Jew.	Jewess.		

3. By a noun, pronoun, or adjective, being prefixed to the substantive; as,

A cock-sparrow.	A hen-sparrow.
A man-servant.	A maid-servant.
A he-goat.	A she-goat.
A he-bear.	A she-bear.
A male child.	A female child.
Male descendants.	Female descendants.

Some nouns are either masculine or feminine; as, parent, child, cousin, friend, neighbour, servant.

Some nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, are used only in the singular form; as, wheat, pitch, gold, &c. others only in the plural form; as, bellows, scissors, lungs, riches, &c.

Some words are the same in both numbers; as, deer, sheep, swine, &c.

Nouns ending in *f* or *fe* are commonly rendered plu-

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ral by the change of those terminations into *ves;* as, loaf, loaves; half, halves; wife, wives, &c.

Nouns which have *y* in the singular, and no other vowel in the same syllable, form their plural in *ies;* as beauty, beauties; fly, flies.

Several nouns form their plural irregularly; as, man, men; woman, women; ox, oxen; child, children; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; louse, lice; mouse, mice; penny, pence; die, dice.

It is agreeable to analogy, and the practice of the generality of correct writers, to construe the following words as plural nouns: pains, riches, alms: and also, mathematics, metaphysics, politics, ethics, optics, pneumatics, with other similar names of sciences.

The word *news*, notwithstanding its termination, is regarded as singular.

The word *means* may be singular or plural, as the construction requires.

The following words, which have been adopted from the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages, are thus distinguished with respect to number:

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Cherub.	Cherubim.	Datum.	Data.
Seraph.	Seraphim.	Effluvium.	Effluvia.
Antithesis.	Antitheses.	Encomium.	Encomia *or* Encomiums.
Automaton.	Automata.	Erratum.	Errata.
Basis.	Bases.	Genius.	Genii.
Crisis.	Crises.	Genus.	Genera.
Criterion.	Criteria.	Index.	Indices *or* Indexes.
Diær'esis.	Diær'eses.	Lamina.	Laminæ.
Ellipsis.	Ellipses.	Medium.	Media.
Emphasis.	Emphases.	Magus.	Magi.
Hypothesis.	Hypotheses.	Memorandum.	Memoranda *or* Memorandums.
Metamorphosis.	Metamorphoses.	Radius.	Radii.
Phænomenon.	Phænomena.	Stamen.	Stamina.
Appendix.	Appendices. Appendixes.	Stratum.	Strata.
Arcanum.	Arcana.	Vortex.	Vortices.
Axis.	Axes.		
Calx.	Calces.		

Some words, derived from the learned languages, are confined to the plural number; as, antipodes, literati, minutiæ.

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The following nouns, being both singular and plural in Latin, are used in the same manner in English: hiatus, apparatus, series, species.

When the plural of nouns does not end in *s*, the possessive case is formed by the addition of *s*, and an apostrophe, just like the possessive singular; as, men's work; women's clothes.

When the singular ends in double *s*, the apostrophic *s* is not always omitted, in forming the possessive; as, witness's testimony.

In words ending in *ence* the apostrophic *s* is commonly dropped even in the singular; as, "For conscience' sake."

When proper names end in *s*, the apostrophic *s* is usually added; as "Adams's administration;" "Willis's paper." But in proper names ending in *us*, custom seems to require that the second *s* be omitted; as, "Jesus' sake;" "Peleus' son;" "Brutus' speech," &c.

Sometimes, though rarely, two nouns in the possessive case immediately succeed each other; as, "My friend's wife's sister;" "My husband's brother's son."

Nouns are declined, as in the following examples:

	Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	Man.	*Nom.*	Men.
Poss.	Man's.	*Poss.*	Men's.
Obj.	Man.	*Obj.*	Men.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	Mother.	*Nom.*	Mothers.
Poss.	Mother's.	*Poss.*	Mothers'.
Obj.	Mother.	*Obj.*	Mothers.

Questions on the Review.

How many ways are there in our language of distinguishing the sex?—What are they?—What is the feminine of Master?—of Nephew?—of Sloven?—of Executor?—of Hero?—of Landgrave?—of Widower?—What nouns have no plural form?—What have no singular form?—What is the plural of Cherub?—of Criterion?—of Datum?—of Radius?—of Stamen?—

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of Vortex?—In what instances is the apostrophic *s* omitted, in forming the possessive case?—Decline Man.—Decline Mother.—

LESSON VII.

An adjective is a word added to a noun, to express its quality; as, "an *industrious* man." The only variation which adjectives admit, is that of the degress of comparison. There are three degrees of comparison; the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*. The *positive state* expresses the quality of an object, without any increase or diminution; as, *wise*, *great*. The *comparative degree* increases or lessens the positive in signification; as, *wiser*, *greater*. The *superlative degree* increases or lessens the positive, to the utmost; as, *wisest*, *greatest*.

If the simple word, or positive, have but one syllable, the comparative is formed by the addition of *r*, or *er;* and the superlative by the addition of *st*, or *est*, to the end of it; as, *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*,—*great*, *greater*, *greatest*. But if the positive consists of more than one syllable, the comparative and superlative are usually formed by prefixing *more*, and *most;* or *less*, and *least;* as, *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful; virtuous*, *less virtuous*, *least virtuous*.

To determine whether a word is an adjective, add the noun *thing;* and if the expression makes complete sense, it is an adjective. The adjective, when the article precedes it and no noun follows it, is used as a noun.

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QUESTIONS.

What is an adjective?—What variation does the adjective admit?—How many degrees of comparison have adjectives, and what are they?—What does the positive state express?—What is said of the comparative degree?—What of the superlative?—In adjectives of one syllable, how is the comparative and the superlative degree formed?—How are they formed, when the positive consists of more than one syllable?—How may you determine whether a word is an adjective?—When is the adjective used as a noun?

ILLUSTRATION.

"*The day was fair, and windy, and cold.*" Which are the adjectives in this sentence?—What is their degree of comparison?—Of what noun do they express the quality?

"*A greater, wiser, and better man than Washington, we have never seen. He was the bravest commander, the most profound statesman, and the most disinterested citizen, which our country has ever produced.*"—How many adjectives are there in these two sentences?—Which are they?—Which of them are comparatives, and which superlatives?

"*God loves the virtuous and the good.*"—Which are the adjectives in this sentence?—How are these adjectives used?—What is the comparative and superlative degree, in each of the following adjectives; *tall, short, high,*

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low, white, black, good, bad, ugly, lovely, extravagant?

REVIEW.

Adjectives expressing the different numbers are called *numeral* adjectives. These are either *cardinal* or *ordinal*. The cardinal are *one, two, three,* &c. the ordinal, *first, second, third,* &c.

If we consider the subject of *comparison* attentively, we shall perceive that the degrees of it are infinite, or at least indefinite. A mountain is larger than a mite;—by how many degrees? How much bigger is the earth than a grain of sand? By how many degrees was Socrates wiser than Alcibiades? Or by how many is snow whiter than paper?—It is plain that to these, and to many similar questions, no definite answers can be returned. It is not possible to accommodate our speech to the numberless gradations which exist; nor would it be convenient, if it were possible.

The termination *ish* may be accounted in some sort a degree of comparison, by which the signification is diminished *below the positive*; as black, blackish; salt, saltish.

The word *rather* is very properly used to express a small degree or *excess* of a quality; as "She is *rather* profuse in her expenses."

Dissyllables are sometimes compared without the help of more and most, &c.; as, happier, happiest; abler, ablest. But words of more than two syllables hardly ever admit of these terminations.

In some words, the superlative is formed by adding *most* to the end of them; as, nethermost, utmost, undermost, uppermost, foremost.

There are some words in common use of very irregular comparison; as, good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; much or many, more, most, &c.

Various nouns placed before other nouns assume the nature of adjectives; as, sea fowl, wine vessel, corn field, meadow ground, &c.

The minuter degrees of comparison, which we have said are infinite, may be expressed intelligibly, if not

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accurately, by the help of adverbs; as, "Virtue is *greatly* preferable to riches;" "Socrates was *much* wiser than Alcibiades." "Snow is *vastly* whiter than paper." "The tide is *considerably* higher to day, than it was yesterday." "God is *infinitely* greater than all his creatures."

When the words *very*, *exceedingly*, &c. are put before the positive, it has been called the superlative of *eminence*, to distinguish it from the other, which is called the superlative of *comparison*; thus *very eloquent* is the superlative of eminence; but *most eloquent* is the superlative of comparison.

Numeral adjectives, and such as denote the figure of bodies, admit of no comparison; as "The *two hundredth* year, a *circular* table, a *quadrangular* court, a *conical* piece of metal." The same holds true in all attributives denoting *definite* qualities, of whatever nature; as, present, mortal, right, universal, supreme, &c.

Questions on the Review.

What are numeral adjectives ?—How are these divided ?—What is said of the termination *ish* ?—Are nouns ever used as adjectives ?—When ?—How are the minuter shades of comparison expressed ?—What has been called the superlative of *eminence* ?—What adjectives admit of no degrees of comparison ?

LESSON VIII.

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word. There are three kinds of pronouns, the *personal*, the *relative*, and the *adjective*.—The PERSONAL PRONOUNS are five, viz. *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*; with their plurals, *we*, *ye* or *you*, *they*. Personal pronouns admit of *number*, *person*, *gender*, and *case*. They are of two numbers, the *singular*, and the *plural*; and of *three persons*, in each of these

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numbers. *Gender* has respect only to the third person singular of the personal pronouns as, *he*, *she*, *it*. These pronouns have three *cases;* the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

The personal pronouns are thus declined:

Person.	*Case.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
First.	Nom.	I.	We.
	Poss.	Mine.	Ours.
	Obj.	Me.	Us.
Second.	Nom.	Thou.	Ye *or* you.
	Poss.	Thine.	Yours.
	Obj.	Thee.	You.
Third Mas.	Nom.	He.	They.
	Poss.	His.	Theirs.
	Obj.	Him	Them.
Third Fem.	Nom.	She.	They.
	Poss.	Hers.	Theirs.
	Obj.	Her.	Them.
Third Neut.	Nom.	It.	They.
	Poss.	Its.	Theirs.
	Obj.	It.	Them.

Some of the pronouns are often prefixed to the word *self*, in which case they form what are denominated *compound personal pronouns;* as, myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself; ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

QUESTIONS.

What is a pronoun?—How many kinds of pronouns are there?—How many personal pronouns?—Of what do personal pronouns admit?—Of how many numbers and persons are they?—What is said of the gender of

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persona. pronouns?—How many cases have they?—Please to decline the personal pronouns, beginning with the first person singular?—What are compound personal pronouns?

ILLUSTRATION.

"*He went to work; she went to meeting; and brother and I went to play.*"—Which are the personal pronouns in this sentence?—In what number, person, and case, is each of them?

"*The enemy pursued us; the fire burnt her; and the sword destroyed them.*"—Which are the personal pronouns in this sentence; and what is the number, person, and case of each?

"*The purse was once mine; then it was yours; but now it is his.*"—You will point out the personal pronouns in this sentence; with the number, person, and case of each.—You will please now to tell me the number, person, and case of each of the following pronouns: *they*, *ye*, *mine*, *him*, *theirs*, *us*, *its*, *his*.

REVIEW.

The Pronoun not only stands in place of a noun, but represents often a *sentence*, a *part* of a sentence, or even a *series of propositions;* as "She bore his abuse very patiently, *which* served to increase his rudeness. *It* produced, at length, contempt and insolence."

Person, in grammar, is that property of a noun or pronoun, which shows us whether it denotes the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the one that is spoken of.

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Mine and *thine* were formerly used before a noun or adjective, beginning with a vowel, or a silent *h*, instead of *my* and *thy;* as "Blot out all *mine* iniquities."

The reason why gender has respect only to the *third* person of the pronouns is probably this; the persons speaking, and spoken to, are supposed to be present, so that their sex is known; but the person or thing *spoken of* being often absent, and in many respects unknown, it is necessary that it should be marked by a distinction of gender.

In the compound personal pronouns, the nominative and objective cases are in form and spelling alike; as "He *himself* did it. He did it for *himself.* They went *themselves.* They went for *themselves.*"

The propriety of admitting *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, &c. as possessive cases of the personal pronouns, has been disputed, though the nature and meaning of these words, and the concurrent practice of our first grammarians, have assigned them this rank and denomination. It has been alleged, that these supposed possessives are actually used in the nominative and objective cases; and that therefore our classification must be erroneous. The instances offered in support of this allegation, are such as the following: "My pleasures are past; *hers* and *yours* are to come:" "They applauded his conduct, but condemned *hers* and *yours.*" A little reflection will, however, show that these pronouns, in the examples produced, are not in the nominative and objective cases, but in the possessive case. The following appears to be the true construction of these sentences: "My pleasures are past; the pleasures *of her* and *of you* are to come;" "They applauded his conduct, but condemned the conduct *of her* and *of you.*" That this is the right construction will more clearly appear, if we substitute nouns for the pronouns: "My pleasures are past; Mary's and Ann's are to come:" "They applauded his conduct, but condemned Mary's and Ann's:" that is, "Mary's and Ann's pleasures; Mary's and Ann's conduct."

The objection too, that the phrase, "An acquaintance *of yours*," supposes the same word to admit of two different signs of the case, seems to be of no validity.

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Instances of a double possessive are not uncommon in our language, and they are far from implying any absurdity. We properly say, "An acquaintance *of Peter's*;" "A soldier *of the king's*."

The possessives under consideration, like other parts of grammar, may indeed have some properties peculiar to themselves; and may not, in their present form, be readily accommodated to every circumstance belonging to the possessive cases of nouns: but they should not, on this slight pretence, be dispossessed of the right and privilege, which, from time immemorial, they have enjoyed.

Questions on the Review.

Does the pronoun ever refer to anything besides a noun?—What is person in grammar?—Why has gender respect only to the third person of the pronouns?—Are *himself* and *themselves* ever in the nominative case?—Give an instance of a double possessive.

LESSON IX.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS are such as relate, in general, to some word or phrase going before, which is thence called the antecedent. They are *who*, *which*, and *that*.—*What* is called a compound relative, including both the antecedent and relative, and is equivalent to *that which*. *Who* is applied to persons, and *which* to animals and things. *Who* is of both numbers, and is thus declined:

Nom.	Who,
Poss.	Whose,
Obj.	Whom.

Who, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions, are called *interrogatives*.

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ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS are of a mixed nature, partaking the properties both of pronouns and adjectives. They may be subdivided into four sorts, viz. the *possessive*, the *distributive*, the *demonstrative*, and *indefinite*.

The *possessive* are those which relate to possession or property. There are seven of them, viz. *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*. —The *distributive* are those which denote the persons or things that make up a number, as taken separately or singly. They are *each*, *every*, and *either*.—The *demonstrative* are those which precisely point out the subject to which they relate. Of this class are *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.—The *indefinite* are those which express their subjects in an indefinite or general manner. The following are of this kind; *some*, *other*, *any*, *one*, *all*, *such*, &c.

Which and *what* are not unfrequently used as adjective pronouns, particularly in asking questions; as, "*What book* is this?" "*Which thing* I also did."

QUESTIONS.

What are relative pronouns?—Which are they?—What is said of the pronoun *what*?—How is *who* declined?—What are called interrogatives?—What are adjective pronouns?—How may they be subdivided?—What are the possessive adjective pronouns?—Which are they?—Define the distributive adjective pronouns.—Which are they?—What is said of the demonstrative adjective pronouns?—

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Which are they?—What are the indefinite adjective pronouns?—Which are they?—What other words are sometimes used as adjective pronouns?

ILLUSTRATION.

"*I am the man who went. This is the horse which carried us. Here is the boy that drove us.*"—Which are the relative pronouns in these sentences?—To what preceding noun does each of them refer?—In what case is each?

"*This is what I wanted. Who brought it?*"—What kind of pronoun is *what?*—What is *who?*

"*My pen, and your pen, will write well. Either lesson is easy. You finish that part, and I will finish these. Then all the work will be done.*"—How many adjective pronouns are there in these sentences?—Which are they; and to which class does each of them belong?—With what nouns are they severally connected?—Please to tell me how each of the following adjective pronouns should be classed; *such, some, this, each, her, any, their.*

REVIEW.

That is chiefly used, as a relative, to prevent the too frequent repetition of *who* and *which*. It is applied to both persons and things.

Relative pronouns must agree with the nouns to which they refer in gender, number, and *person;* the personal pronouns agree only in gender and number; as, "Lazarus, *who art* dead, come forth. And *he* came forth."

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Who and *which* have sometimes the words *ever* and *soever* annexed to them; as, *whoever, whichever; whosoever, whichsoever.*

The relative pronoun, when used *interrogatively* relates to a word or phrase which is not *antecedent but subsequent* to the relative; as "*who* is this? *John.*" Here *John* is the noun to which the relative or interrogative *who* refers.

Whether was formerly made use of to signify interrogation: as, "*Whether* of these shall I choose?" but it is now seldom used, the interrogative *which* being substituted for it. Some grammarians think that the use of it should be revived, as, like *either* and *neither* it points to the dual number, and would contribute to render our expressions concise and definite.

Some writers have classed the interrogatives as a separate kind of pronouns: but they are too nearly related to the relative pronouns, both in nature and form, to render such a division proper. They do not, in fact, lose the character of relatives, when they become interrogatives. The only difference is, that *without* an interrogation, the relatives have reference to a subject which is antecedent, definite, and known; *with* an interrogation, to a subject which is subsequent, indefinite and unknown, and which it is expected that the *answer* should express and ascertain.

His may be either a possessive adjective pronoun, or a personal pronoun in the possessive case. If the former, it is usually placed before the noun to which it belongs; as "*his* hat, *his* book;" but if the latter, it follows the noun by which it is governed; as "this hat is *his.*"

The words *own* and *self* are used in conjunction with possessive adjective pronouns. *Own* is joined to possessives in both the singular and plural number, and renders the expression emphatical; as, "I live in my *own* house. She has her *own* friends."—*Self*, joined to possessive adjective pronouns, converts them into compound personal pronouns; as, "I went after him *myself.* You *yourselves* know I did."

Possessive adjective pronouns admit of no variation, whatever may be the number or case of the nouns to which they belong.

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Each relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies either of the two, or every one of any number, taken separately.

Every relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them all, taken separately.

Either relates to two persons or things, taken separately, and signifies the one, or the other.

Neither imports the same as *not either*.

When *this* and *that* are used in a way of comparison, correspondence, or contrast, *this* refers to the nearest person or thing, and *that* to the most distant; as, "*This* man is more intelligent than *that*." Or *this* indicates the latter of two things mentioned, and *that* the former; as, "Both wealth and poverty are temptations; *that* tends to excite pride, *this* discontent."

Of the indefinite adjective pronouns, *one* and *other* have a possessive case, which they form in the same way as nouns; as, *one*, *one's*; *other*, *other's*.

Another is composed of *an* and *other*, and is used accordingly.

None, though composed of *not* and *one*, is now used in both numbers. It is always used as a noun; as, "*None* of them *remain* alive. You ask for bread, but there *is none*."

Questions on the Review.

Why is *that* used as a relative?—Do relative and personal pronouns agree, to the *same extent*, with their antecedents?—To what does the relative pronoun relate, when used interrogatively?—When is *his* a possessive adjective pronoun?—When is it a personal pronoun in the possessive case?—When *self* is added to possessive adjective pronouns, what do they become?—Do possessive adjective pronouns admit of any variation?—Which of the indefinite adjective pronouns form the possessive case like nouns?—How is *none* used?—

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LESSON X.

A GENERAL APPLICATION OF THE PRECEDING LESSONS.

"*Jesus saith unto Peter, Simon, lovest thou me more than these?*"—Which are the nouns in this sentence?—Are they proper, or common?—In what person, number, gender, and case, is each?—What personal pronouns are there?—What is the person, number, and case, of each?—Is there an adjective pronoun in the sentence?—To which class does it belong?

"*The man and the woman passed by, with a little dog.*"—Which are the articles in this sentence?—Which are the nouns?—Are they common or proper?—What is the person, number, gender, and case, of each?—Is there an adjective in the sentence?—To what noun does it belong?

"*Yesterday was the coldest, darkest, and most dreary day, I ever saw.*"—Which are the adjectives in this sentence?—What is their degree of comparison?—To what noun do they belong?—Is there a personal pronoun in the sentence?—What is its person, number, and case?

"*I am he who did this thing. It is what I wished to do. It is my work. Such a thing was never done before.*" There are ten pronouns in these sentences; which are they?—Which of them are personal?—Which relative?—Which adjective?—What is the person, number, gender, and case, of each of the personal pronouns?—Is there a compound

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relative in the sentences?—To which class do the adjective pronouns respectively belong?—Which are the nouns?—What is the number, person, and case, of each?

"*Who is this that cometh? He is whiter and fairer than all the children of men.*"—What kind of pronoun is *who?*—There is a relative pronoun in the sentences; which is it?—Which are the adjective pronouns; and of what kind?—There is a personal pronoun; what is its person, number, gender, and case?—What adjectives are there in the sentences?—What is their degree of comparison?—To what do they belong?—There are two nouns; what is their person, number, and case?

A general Application of the preceding Reviews.

"He is an hardhearted man. The figure is called an hyperbole."—Why is *an* used before an *h* not silent, in these sentences?

"He is a useful man. We have such a usage."—Why is *a* used before a vowel in these sentences?—What kind of nouns are the following; *army, people, congregation,* &c.?—

"She is a good instructer, but her mother was a great sloven."—What improprieties in this sentence?

"The cherubs were ten cubits high. Thou shalt make two cherubims of gold."—What improprieties in these sentences?

"He is the foremost man among them."—In what degree of comparison is foremost?

"He keeps a day school and a singing school."—What part of speech is day?

"This is the squarest table of the four."—What impropriety in this sentence?

"He himself is gone. They must themselves suffer."—In what case are the pronouns himself and themselves?

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"Whose book is this? Charles's."—To what does the interrogative *whose* refer?

"I have not either of the many things for which you ask." -What impropriety in this sentence?

LESSON XI.

A VERB is a word which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer; as, "*I am, I rule, I am ruled.*" —Verbs are of three kinds, *active*, *passive*, and *neuter*. They are also divided into *regular*, *irregular*, and *defective*.—A verb *active* or *transitive* expresses action, and necessarily implies an agent, and an object acted upon; as, *to love;* "I *love* my brother."—A verb *passive* expresses the suffering or receiving of an action, and necessarily implies an object acted upon, and an agent by whom it is acted upon; as, *to be loved;* "My brother *is loved* by me."—A verb *neuter* or *intransitive*, does not express *action* which terminates on any object, or *passion*, but commonly *being*, or a *state of being;* as, "*I am; I sleep; I sit.*"—The verb active may be distinguished from the neuter, by placing the noun *thing* after it. If the expression makes good sense, the verb is active; as, *to love a thing; to hate a thing; to do a thing*, &c.—The neuter verb, *to be*, is an exception to this remark.—The passive verb may always be known, by its having the verb *be*, or some one derived from it, joined with the perfect participle of an active verb; as, "I *am ruled;*" "It *was done.*" Hence,

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what is called the *passive* verb is not properly a distinct verb, but merely a particular form of the *active* verb.

Those verbs which form their imperfect tense and perfect participle in *ed*, are esteemed *regular;* all others are *irregular.—Defective* verbs are those which are used in only *some* of their Modes and Tenses.

Auxiliary or helping verbs are those, by the help of which the English verbs are principally conjugated. They are the following: *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, and *can*, with their variations; and *must*, which has no variation.

The PARTICIPLE is a certain form of the verb, and participates the properties both of the verb, and adjective. There are three participles, the *present* or active, the *perfect* or passive, and the *compound perfect;* as, *loving*, *loved*, *having loved*.

QUESTIONS.

What is a verb?—Of how many kinds are they?—How are they farther divided?—What does the verb active express and imply?—What the verb passive?—What does the verb neuter express?—How may the verb active be distinguished from the neuter?—What neuter verb is an exception to this remark?—How may the passive verb be known?—What verbs are regular and what irregular?—What are defective verbs?—What are auxiliary or helping verbs?—Which are they?—What is a participle?—How many participles are there?

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ILLUSTRATION.

"*She loves me, though I am not fair.*" "*He sits and rules the world in wisdom.*"—How many verbs are there in these sentences?—Which of them are active, and which neuter?—Which are regular, and which irregular?

"*It shall be done as you have directed me.*" Here are two verbs; which is passive, and which active?—Which is regular, and which irregular?—What helping verbs are there in the sentence?

"*Having taught the people, he departed, expressing much affection for them.*"—Which are the participles in this sentence; and of which class is each?—There is a verb here; is it regular, or irregular; active, passive, or neuter?—You will please to answer me the same question, respecting each of the following verbs: *govern, afflict, send, sleep, stand, am troubled, am disturbed.*

REVIEW.

The verb active is also called *transitive*, because the action *passes over* to an object, or has an effect upon some other thing; as, "The tutor *instructs his pupils; I esteem the man.*"

The verb neuter is called *intransitive*, because the effect is confined within the subject, and does *not pass over* to any object; as, "*I sit, he sleeps, they live.*"

Some neuter verbs express action, but not action which *terminates on any object;* as, *to run, to walk, to fly.* They are therefore *intransitive*, and may easily be distinguished from the proper active verb. Other neuter verbs are more clearly expressive of a middle state between action and passion; as, *to stand, to lie, to sleep.*

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Some writers make a distinction between the *neuter* verb, and what they call the *active intransitive;* but as the difference between them is often difficult to be ascertained, it is thought that the distinction, if admitted, will serve rather to perplex, than to assist the learner.

In English, many verbs are used in both an active and a neuter signification, the construction alone determining of what kind they are.

A neuter verb, by the addition of a preposition, may become what is sometimes called a compound active verb, and with the same addition assumes the passive form; as, "Fortune *smiled on* him; he *was smiled on* by fortune." The mere neuter verb sometimes assumes a passive form; as, "*He is gone; he is arrived; the bird is flown.*"

The following are the principal *defective* verbs:

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perf. and Part.*
May.	Might.	*wanting.*
Can.	Could.	———
Will.	Would.	———
Shall.	Should.	———
Must.	Must.	———
Ought.	Ought.	———
———	Quoth.	———

All these, except ought and quoth, are used as *auxiliaries.*

Four of the auxiliaries, *do, be, have,* and *will* are sometimes used as principal verbs; the others never are. When these four are used as principal verbs, they are conjugated by the help of auxiliaries, the same as any other verbs.

The peculiar force of the several auxiliaries will appear from the following account of them:

Do and *did,* mark the action itself, or the time of it, with greater energy and earnestness; as, "I *do* speak the truth; I *did* respect him."—They are almost universally employed in asking questions; as, "*Does* he learn? *Did* he write?"—They sometimes also supply the place of another verb, and make the repetition of it unnecessary; as, "You attend not to your studies as he *does.*

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will come if possible; but if I *do not*, you must excuse me."

May and *might* express the *possibility* or *liberty* of doing a thing; *can* and *could*, the *power;* as, "he *may read*, he *can write*."

Must denotes necessity; as, "we *must speak* the truth."

Will, in the *first* person, intimates a resolution or promise; in the *second* and *third*, it foretells; as, "I will go; we will remember." "They will be sorry; he will return."

Shall, on the contrary, foretells in the first person; and promises, commands, or threatens, in the second and third; as, "I shall go abroad; we shall dine at home." "They shall inherit the land; you shall be punished for your wickedness."—These observations, respecting the import of *will* and *shall*, will not apply to *interrogative* sentences—in which just the reverse most commonly takes place; as, "*I shall go. Shall I go?*" &c.

Would primarily denotes inclination of will; and *should*, obligation; but they both vary their import, and are often used to express simple events.

Were is frequently used for *would be*, and *had* for *would have*—in which case they are properly in the potential mode; as, "Amusements youth require; it *were* vain, it *were* cruel to prohibit them."

The *participle* partakes of the nature of the verb, because it expresses *action*, as the verb does; and of the nature of the adjective, because it frequently belongs to some noun, and is used as an adjective.

The participle never varies its termination, but is spelled in the same manner, in whatever number or case the noun may be, to which it belongs.

The participle is distinguished from the adjective, as the former expresses the idea of *time*, and the latter denotes only a *quality*. The phrases, "*loving* to give, as well as to receive," "*moving* in haste," "*heated* with liquor," contain participles giving the idea of time; but in the expressions, "a *loving* child," "a *moving* spectacle," "a *heated* imagination," the epithets mark simply the qualities referred to, without any regard to time, and are properly adjectives

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Participles not only convey the notion of time, but signify action, being, or passion, and may have the same case after them, whether nominative or objective, as their verbs do from which they are derived. Indeed they are, in one sense, but a mere *mode* or *form* of the verb.

Participles sometimes perform the office of nouns, and are used as such; as, "He made a good *beginning;* he has a good *understanding;* this is excellent *writing;* the chancellor's *being attached* to the king secured his crown."

Questions on the Review.

Why is the verb active called transitive?—Why is the verb neuter called intransitive?—Are there not some neuter verbs which express action?—Why then are they not active verbs?—Are any active verbs used in a neuter signification?—Does the neuter verb ever assume a passive form?—Which are the principal defective verbs?—Which of the auxiliaries are used as principal verbs?—How does the participle partake of the nature of the verb?—How of the nature of the adjective?—Does the participle vary its termination?—How is the participle distinguished from the adjective?—Do participles ever perform the office of nouns?—

LESSON XII

To verbs belong *number*, *person*, *mode*, and *tense*. They have two *numbers*, the singular, and the plural, in each of which there are three *persons*.—*Mode* is a particular form of the verb, showing the manner in which the being, action, or passion is represented. There are five modes; the *indicative*, the *imperative*, the *potential*, the *subjunctive*, and the *infinitive*.—The *indicative* mode simply indicates or declares a thing or asks a question; as, "*He loves; he is loved; is he loved?*" The *impera-*

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tive mode is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, permitting, &c.; as, "*Depart thou; mind ye.*"—The *potential* mode implies possibility, liberty, power, will, or obligation; as, "*It may rain; I can ride.*"—The *subjunctive* mode represents an action as under some condition, supposition, or contingency, and is preceded by a conjunction expressing the same; as, "*If I love; though he write.*"—The *infinitive* mode expresses a thing in a general and unlimited manner, and without any distinction of number and person; as, "*To love; to write.*"

TENSE is made to consist of six variations, viz. the *present*, the *imperfect*, the *perfect*, the *pluperfect*, and the *first* and *second future* tenses.—The *present* tense represents an action or event, as passing at the time in which it is mentioned; as, "*I rule; I am ruled.*"—The *imperfect* tense represents an action or event, either as past and finished, or as remaining unfinished, at a certain time past; as, "*I loved her; I was writing when he came.*"—The *perfect* tense not only expresses an event as past, but also conveys an allusion to the present tense; as, "*I have finished my letter.*"—The *pluperfect* tense represents a thing, not only as past, but as having past prior to some other point of time specified in the sentence; as, "*I had finished writing before he arrived.*"—The *first future* tense represents the action as yet to come, either with or without respect to the precise time; as, "*I shall live; ye will see.*"—The *second future* intimates that the

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action will be fully accomplished, at or before the time of another future action or event; as, "*I shall have dined at one o'clock.*"

QUESTIONS.

What belong to verbs?—How many numbers and persons have they?—What is mode?—How many modes have verbs, and what are they?—What is said of the indicative mode?—For what is the imperative mode used?—What does the potential mode imply?—How does the subjunctive mode represent an action?—What is said of the infinitive mode?—How many variations of tense are there, and what are they?—How does the present tense represent an action?—How does the imperfect?—How the perfect?—How does the pluperfect?—How does the first future?—What is said of the second future?

REVIEW.

Mode may be defined to consist in the changes which the verb undergoes, to signify the various intentions of the mind, and the various modifications and circumstances of action.)

Though the imperative mode derives its name from its intimation of command, it is used on occasions of a very opposite nature, even in the *humblest supplications;* as, "*Give* us this day, our daily bread."

It has been questioned whether the potential mode differs materially from the indicative. But as the indicative mode simply indicates or declares a thing, it is manifest that the potential, which modifies the declaration, and introduces an idea quite distinct from it, must be sufficiently different, to warrant a corresponding distinction of mode.

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The subjunctive mode may be signified by any conjunction expressing a condition, doubt, supposition, &c. such as, *if, though, although, whether, lest, unless,* &c.

The subjunctive mode is always attended by another verb, expressed or understood, and consequently is never used in a strictly simple sentence.

As the *indicative* mode is changed into the subjunctive, by prefixing a conjunction expressing a condition, doubt, supposition, &c. so the *potential* mode may in like manner be turned into the subjunctive; as, "*If I could learn; though he should increase in wealth.*"

The infinitive mode is distinguished from all others, by its admitting no nominative before it. A verb, in any mode, except the infinitive, is called a *finite* verb, because it is *limited*, by its nominative, in regard to its number and person. A simple sentence is one which contains but one nominative, and one *finite* verb. It may contain another verb in the infinitive mode, and still be a simple sentence; as, "*I wish to speak*," &c.

The present tense, preceded by the words *when, before, after, as soon as*, &c, is sometimes used to point out the relative time of a *future* action; as, "*When he arrives*, he will hear the news." Or "He will hear the news *before* he arrives, or *as soon as* he arrives, or *soon after* he arrives."

We sometimes use this tense, in speaking of persons long since dead; as, "*Seneca reasons well; Job speaks feelingly.*" In animated historical narration, the present is often substituted for the imperfect tense; as, "He *enters* the field of conflict; he *fights* and *conquers*."

In this tense, we usually express *continued* action; as, "He rides out frequently; he goes into the country every summer; I am building me a house."

The imperfect and perfect tenses both denote a thing that is past; but the perfect denotes it in such a manner that there is still actually *remaining some part of the time to slide away*, wherein we declare the thing has been done; whereas the imperfect denotes the thing or action past in such a manner, that *nothing* remains of that time in which it was done. Thus, speaking of the present century, we say, "Philosophers *have made* great discoveries in the present century;" but, speaking of the last

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century, we say, "Philosophers *made* great discoveries in the last century." "He *has been* much afflicted this year; he *was* much afflicted last year." "He *has been* here to-day; he *was* here yesterday."

In general, the perfect tense may be used, wherever the action is connected with the *present tense*, by the actual existence either of the author or of the work, though it may have been performed many centuries ago; but if neither the author nor the work remains, it cannot properly be used. Thus we may say, "Cicero *has written* beautiful orations," because his orations remain; but we cannot so properly say, "Cicero *has written* poems," because his poetry is lost. We may properly say, "conquerors *have been* cruel," because conquerors still exist; but we cannot say, "Alexander *has been* cruel," because Alexander no longer lives.

The perfect tense, like the present, if preceded by the words, *when*, *after*, *as soon as*, &c. is often used to denote the relative time of a future action; as, "I will attend to his business *when* I have finished my letter," or "*as soon as* I have finished my letter."

It ought to be observed, in addition to the remarks here made on the tenses, that some of the *modes* often carry with them somewhat of a future tense or meaning. This is perhaps always the case with the *imperative* mode. *Love* thou, *do* this—referring necessarily to an action, not done, or doing, but *to be done*. This is also the case with the *infinitive* mode, present tense. "I am *to be* there; she chooses *to come* to-morrow." The same also may be said of the *subjunctive* mode. "*If he come*, he will see me."

We may farther observe, that the auxiliaries *should* and *would*, in the imperfect tense, are used to express a present and future meaning, (as well as a past) "It is my desire that he *should come* to-morrow."—It follows from these remarks that the real *time* of the verb is not always to be determined by the form of it, so much as by the nature and drift of the sentence.

In employing the different tenses, the two following things ought to be chiefly regarded, viz. the *relation* which the several tenses have to one another, in respect

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Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I might, could, would, *or* should have had	1 We might, could, would, *or* should have had
2 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have had	2 Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should have had
3 He might, could, would, *or* should have had	3 They might, could, would, *or* should have had

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I have	1 If we have
2 If thou have	2 If ye *or* you have
3 If he have	3 If they have

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I had	1 If we had
2 If thou hadst	2 If ye *or* you had
3 If he, &c. had	3 If they had

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I have had	1 If we have had
2 If thou hast had	2 If ye *or* you have had
3 If he has had	3 If they have had

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I had had	1 If we had had
2 If thou hadst had	2 If ye *or* you had had
3 If he had had	3 If they had had

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I shall *or* will have	1 If we shall *or* will have
2 If thou shalt *or* wilt have	2 If ye *or* you shall *or* will have
3 If he shall *or* will have	3 If they shall *or* will have

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I shall have had	1 If we shall have had
2 If thou shalt have had	2 If ye *or* you shall have had
3 If he shall have had	3 If they shall have had

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Infinitive Mode.

Present, To have. ***Perfect***, To have had.

Participles.

Present or active, Having.
Perfect or passive, Had.
Compound perfect, Having had.

QUESTIONS.

What is the conjugation of a verb?—You will now conjugate the verb *have*, through all its modes, tenses, numbers, and persons, beginning with the Indicative mode, present tense, first person singular.—In what mode and tense, number and person is *We had?*—In what is *He has had?*—In what is *I will have?*—In what is *have ye?*—In what mode, tense, number, and person, is each of the following expressions: *He may have; You can have; I might have; They should have; We may have had; Thou couldst have had; If he have; If we had; To have had?*—What kind of participle is *having had?*—What kind of verb is *have?*

REVIEW.

Hath is now used only in poetry, and on very serious subjects. *Thou*, *thee* and *ye* are becoming obsolete.

All the tenses which are formed by the help of auxiliary verbs are called *compound* tenses; the others are *simple* tenses.

Shall and *will*, as they generally signify futurity, have been appropriated to the formation of the future tenses. But when they denote inclination, resolution, promise, &c. as they often do, they may be considered as belonging to the potential mode; as, "*Will you give* me that book? He *shall obey* me."

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It will be seen that the tenses of the subjunctive mode, only as they have a conjunction prefixed, are similar to those of the indicative, except the present, and the second future. In many cases, the subjunctive mode retains the personal terminations of the indicative, in the second and third persons singular; as, "If I have, if thou hast, if he has; if I am, if thou art, if he is; if I love, if thou lovest, if he loves, &c. In these cases, the verb, although it has the subjunctive form, is really in the indicative mode. The following rule will determine when the verb is to assume the subjunctive form, and when the indicative: When it assumes the subjunctive form, it always has a *future signification*, or has some reference to *future time*; (but in the indicative form, its signification is *present*)

Questions on the Review.

What are called compound tenses, and what simple? —When may, *shall* and *will* be considered in the potential mode?—When does the subjunctive mode assume the proper subjunctive terminations, and when the indicative?—

LESSON XIV.

THE auxiliary and neuter verb *to be*, is conjugated as follows:

Indicative Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I am	1 We are
2 Thou art	2 Ye *or* you are
3 He, she, *or* it is	3 They are

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I was	1 We were
2 Thou wast	2 Ye *or* you were
3 He was	3 They were

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I have been	1 We have been
2 Thou hast been	2 Ye *or* you have been
3 He hath *or* has been	3 They have been

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Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I had been	1 We had been
2 Thou hadst been	2 Ye *or* you had been
3 He had been	3 They had been

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I shall *or* will be	1 We shall *or* will be
2 Thou shalt *or* wilt be	2 Ye *or* you shall *or* will be
3 He shall *or* will be	3 They shall *or* will be

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I shall have been	1 We shall have been
2 Thou wilt have been	2 Ye *or* you will have been
3 He will have been	3 They will have been

Imperative Mode.

Singular.	Plural.
2 Be thou, *or* do thou be	2 Be ye *or* you, *or* do ye be

Potential Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I may *or* can be	1 We may *or* can be
2 Thou mayst *or* canst be	2 Ye *or* you may *or* can be
3 He may *or* can be	3 They may *or* can be

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I might, could, would, *or* should be	1 We might, could, would, *or* should be
2 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst be	2 Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should be
3 He might, could, would, *or* should be	3 They might, could, would, *or* should be

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I may *or* can have been	1 We may *or* can have been
2 Thou mayst *or* canst have been	2 Ye *or* you may *or* can have been
3 He may *or* can have been	3 They may *or* can have bee

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Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I might, could, would, *or* should have been	1 We might, could, would, *or* should have been
2 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have been	2 Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should have been
3 He might, could, would, *or* should have been	3 They might, could, would, *or* should have been

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I be	1 If we be
2 If thou be	2 If ye *or* you be
3 If he be	3 If they be

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I were	1 If we were
2 If thou wert	2 If ye *or* you were
3 If he were	3 If they were

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I have been	1 If we have been
2 If thou hast been	2 If ye *or* you have been
3 If he hath *or* has been	3 If they have been

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I had been	1 If we had been
2 If thou hadst been	2 If ye *or* you had been
3 If he had been	3 If they had been

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I shall *or* will be	1 If we shall *or* will be
2 If thou shalt *or* wilt be	2 If ye *or* you shall *or* will be
3 If he shall *or* will be	3 If they shall *or* will be

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I shall have been	1 If we shall have been
2 If thou shalt have been	2 If ye *or* you shall have been
3 If he shall have been	3 If they shall have been

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Infinitive Mode.

Present Tense, To be *Perfect*, To have been

Participles.

Present, Being *Perfect*, Been
Compound Perfect, Having been.

QUESTIONS.

What kind of verb is *to be?*—You will conjugate this verb, through all its modes, tenses, numbers, and persons, beginning with the indicative mode, present tense, first person singular.—In what mode, tense, number, and person, do you find each of the following expressions, from this verb: *We were; He has been; I had been; They will have been; Thou shouldst be; We may have been; I might have been; If thou wert; To be?*—What kind of participle is *being?*—What kind is *been?*

REVIEW.

You are and *you were* are used much more frequently than *thou art*, and *thou wast*, even when the singular number is intended. The phrase *you was*, though often heard in colloquial and extemporaneous discourse, is not well supported by standard writers, and consequently must be considered vulgar.

This verb *to be* is the most irregular verb in the language, and one which it is of the utmost importance to commit thoroughly to memory, and to understand well.

This verb, unlike any other, forms its imperfect *subjunctive*, in the singular number, very different from the singular of the *indicative* imperfect; as *I was*, *if I were*. &c.

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LESSON XV.

A REGULAR ACTIVE VERB is conjugated in the following manner:

Indicative Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I love	1 We love
2 Thou lovest	2 Ye *or* you love
3 He, she, *or* it loveth *or* loves	3 They love

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I loved	1 We loved
2 Thou lovedst	2 Ye *or* you loved
3 He loved	3 They loved

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I have loved	1 We have loved
2 Thou hast loved	2 Ye *or* you have loved
3 He hath *or* has loved	3 They have loved

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I had loved	1 We had loved
2 Thou hadst loved	2 Ye *or* you had loved
3 He had loved	3 They had loved

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I shall *or* will love	1 We shall *or* will love
2 Thou shalt *or* wilt love	2 Ye *or* you shall *or* will love
3 He shall *or* will love	3 They shall *or* will love

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I shall have loved	1 We shall have loved
2 Thou wilt have loved	2 Ye *or* you will have loved
3 He will have loved	3 They will have loved

Imperative Mode.

Singular.	Plural.
2 Love thou, *or* do thou love	2 Love ye *or* you, *or* do ye love

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Potential Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I may *or* can love	1 We may *or* can love
2 Thou mayst *or* canst love	2 Ye *or* you may *or* can love
3 He may *or* can love	3 They may *or* can love

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I might, could, would, *or* should love	1 We might, could, would, *or* should love
2 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst love	2 Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should love
3 He might, could, would, *or* should love	3 They might, could, would, *or* should love

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I may *or* can have loved	1 We may *or* can have loved
2 Thou mayst *or* canst have loved	2 Ye *or* you may *or* can have loved
3 He may *or* can have loved	3 They may *or* can have loved

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I might, could, would, *or* should have loved	1 We might, could, would, *or* should have loved
2 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have loved	2 Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should have loved
3 He might, could, would, *or* should have loved	3 They might, could, would, *or* should have loved

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I love	1 If we love
2 If thou love	2 If ye or you love
3 If he love	3 If they love

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I loved	1 If we loved
2 If thou lovedst	2 If ye *or* you loved
3 If he loved	3 If they loved

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Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I have loved	1 If we have loved
2 If thou hast loved	2 If ye *or* you have loved
3 If he hath *or* has loved	3 If they have loved

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I had loved	1 If we had loved
2 If thou hadst loved	2 If ye *or* you had loved
3 If he had loved	3 If they had loved

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I shall *or* will love	1 If we shall *or* will love
2 If thou shalt *or* wilt love	2 If ye *or* you shall *or* will love
3 If he shall *or* will love	3 If they shall *or* will love

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I shall have loved	1 If we shall have loved
2 If thou shalt have loved	2 If ye *or* you shall have loved
3 If he shall have loved	3 If they shall have loved

Infinitive Mode.

Present, To love ***Perfect,*** To have loved

Participles.

Present, Loving ***Perfect,*** Loved
Compound Perfect, Having loved

QUESTIONS.

What kind of verb is *love?*—You may now conjugate this verb, beginning with the indicative mode, present tense, first person, singular.—In what mode, tense, number, and person, do you find each of the following expressions, from this verb: *It loveth; We loved; Thou hast loved; You had loved; They will love; Love ye; We can love; I might love; You might have loved; If we love; If we have loved?*—In the indicative mode, how do you

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distinguish the pluperfect tense from the perfect?—How the second future from the future?—In the potential mode, how do you distinguish the perfect tense from the present?—How the pluperfect from the imperfect?—By what helping verbs in the conjugation, do you distinguish the potential mode from the indicative?—By what means do you distinguish the subjunctive from both?—What are the participles from the verb *love?*

REVIEW.

When particular energy and positiveness are intended, verbs may be conjugated, in the present and imperfect tenses, with the helping verb *do;* as, I *do* love, thou *dost* love, he *does* love; I *did* love, thou *didst* love, he *did* love, &c.

The imperfect tense and perfect participle of all *regular* verbs, and of many *irregular* verbs, are spelled alike. They may be distinguished by this—the imperfect tense *always* has a nominative, the participle *never.* Also the word *being* may commonly be placed before the perfect participle, and make sense, but never before the verb.

When an auxiliary is joined to the participle of the principal verb, the *auxiliary* goes through all the variations of person and number, while the participle itself continues invariably the same. And when there are two or more auxiliaries joined to the participle, the first of them only is varied according to number and person

LESSON XVI.

A PASSIVE VERB is conjugated, by prefixing the auxiliary *to be,* to the perfect participle, through all its changes of number, person, mode, and tense.

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The verb *love*, in its passive form, is conjugated as follows:

Indicative Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular	Plural.
1 I am loved	1 We are loved
2 Thou art loved	2 Ye *or* you are loved
3 He is loved	3 They are loved

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I was loved	1 We were loved
2 Thou wast loved	2 Ye *or* you were loved
3 He was loved	3 They were loved

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I have been loved	1 We have been loved
2 Thou hast been loved	2 Ye *or* you have been loved
3 He hath *or* has been loved	3 They have been loved

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I had been loved	1 We had been loved
2 Thou hadst been loved	2 Ye *or* you had been loved
3 He had been loved	3 They had been loved

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I shall *or* will be loved	1 We shall *or* will be loved
2 Thou shalt *or* wilt be loved	2 Ye *or* you shall *or* will be loved
3 He shall *or* will be loved	3 They shall *or* will be loved

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I shall have been loved	1 We shall have been loved
2 Thou wilt have been loved	2 Ye *or* you will have been loved
3 He will have been loved	3 They will have been loved

Imperative Mode.

Singular.	Plural.
2 Be thou loved, *or* do thou be loved	2 Be ye *or* you loved, *or* do ye be loved

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Potential Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I may *or* can be loved	1 We may *or* can be loved
2 Thou mayst *or* canst be loved	2 Ye *or* you may *or* can be loved
3 He may *or* can be loved	3 They may *or* can be loved

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I might, could, would, *or* should be loved	1 We might, could, would, *or* should be loved
2 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst be loved	2 Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should be loved
3 He might, could, would, *or* should be loved	3 They might, could, would, *or* should be loved

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I may *or* can have been loved	1 We may *or* can have been loved
2 Thou mayst *or* canst have been loved	2 Ye *or* you may *or* can have been loved
3 He may *or* can have been loved	3 They may *or* can have been loved

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 I might, could, would, *or* should have been loved	1 We might, could, would, *or* should have been loved
2 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have been loved	2 Ye *or* you might, could, would, *or* should have been loved
3 He might, could, would, *or* should have been loved	3 They might, could, would, *or* should have been loved

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I be loved	1 If we be loved
2 If thou be loved	2 If ye *or* you be loved
3 If he be loved	3 If they be loved

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I were loved	1 If we were loved
2 If thou wert loved	2 If ye *or* you were loved
3 If he were loved	3 If they were loved

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Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I have been loved	1 If we have been loved
2 If thou hast been loved	2 If ye *or* you have been loved
3 If he hath *or* has been loved	3 If they have been loved

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I had been loved	1 If we had been loved
2 If thou hadst been loved	2 If ye *or* you had been loved
3 If he had been loved	3 If they had been loved

First Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I shall *or* will be loved	1 If we shall *or* will be loved
2 If thou shalt *or* wilt be loved	2 If ye *or* you shall *or* will be loved
3 If he shall *or* will be loved	3 If they shall *or* will be loved

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1 If I shall have been loved	1 If we shall have been loved
2 If thou shalt have been loved	2 If ye *or* you shall have been loved
3 If he shall have been loved	3 If they shall have been loved

Infinitive Mode.

Present Tense, To be loved — *Perfect*, To have been loved

Participles.

Present, Being loved. — *Perfect or Passive*, Loved.
Compound Perfect, Having been loved.

Nearly all the verbs in the English language, in both the active and passive forms, are conjugated in the same manner as the verb *love*.

QUESTIONS.

How is a passive verb conjugated?—You may conjugate the verb *love*, in its passive form, beginning with the indicative mode, present tense, first person singular.—In what

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mode, tense, number, and person, do you find each of the following expressions, from this form of the verb: *We were loved; He has been loved; They had been loved; You will be loved; Be ye loved; I may be loved; Thou shouldst be loved; He can have been loved; You might have been loved; Though I were loved?*—How many tenses are there in the potential mode?—How many in the infinitive?—What is the present passive participle from *love?*—What is the compound perfect?—How are nearly all the verbs in our language conjugated?

REVIEW.

The passive verb is distinguished from the active, not only by its taking the auxiliary *to be*, through all its changes of number, person, mode, and tense, but by its particular influence upon its nominative. The nominatives to verbs may be divided into three classes, viz. those which *produce* the action expressed by the verb; those which *receive* the action expressed by the verb; and those which neither produce any action, nor receive any, but are the subjects of the verbs, which simply express the *existence* of these subjects, or their *state* of existence. The first class of these nominatives belong to *active* verbs; the second to *passive* verbs; and the third to *neuter* verbs. The following examples will make the subject plain: "John *loves* his brother; John *is loved* by his brother." In the first of these instances, the nominative, *John*, *produces* the action expressed by the verb *love;* i. e. John *loves*. But in the second, the nominative, *John*, *receives* the action expressed by the verb *love;* i. e. John *is loved*. And so of every other properly passive verb: The nominative *receives* or *suffers* the action, which the verb expresses.

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LESSON XVII.

A GENERAL ILLUSTRATION OF SEVERAL OF THE PRECEDING LESSONS.

"*I had the book when I was young.*" "*I have been a child, and have had many toys.*"—In what mode, tense, number, and person is *had*, *was*, *have been*, and *have had*, in these sentences?

"*I loved her, and was loved by her.*"—Which of these verbs is active, and which passive?—What is their mode, tense, number, and person?

"*Come ye, and learn the fear of the Lord.*"—Here are two verbs; of what kind is each of them, and in what mode?

"*You have instructed many, and have acquired much fame.*"—What kind of verbs have we in this sentence; and what is their mode, tense, number, and person?

"*I shall be obliged to you for the favour.*"—What kind of verb have we in this sentence; and in what mode, tense, &c. do you find it?

"*If he come, he will see me.*"—In what mode, tense, &c. is each of these verbs?

"*You should have kept him.*"—What kind of verb is *kept*; and what is its mode, tense, &c.?—You may point out the verb in each of the following sentences—class it—and then give its mode, tense, number, and person: "*I*

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can sleep; You should write; He may have come; They should have called; I might have been embarrassed; If I had been enslaved; To have done it; We were warned."

A general Illustration of several of the preceding Reviews.

"The man walks; the horse runs; the bird flies." What kind of verbs have we in these sentences?

"Let me roll it; it rolls. The king rules wisely; their master rules them. He shall separate them; we must separate."—Here are six verbs; of what kind is each?

"You ought to pay me, quoth the farmer."—What kind of verbs have we in this sentence?

"He may have come. They should have been called."—Which are the auxiliary verbs in these sentences?

"He might have been had. You did do it."—Which are the principal verbs in these sentences?

"It were injustice to deny the execution of the laws to any individual."—In what mode is *were*?

"Many acts, which had been blamable in a peaceable government, were employed to detect conspiracies."—In what mode is *had been*?

"She possesses a contented mind. She lives contented with her humble lot."—In which of these sentences is contented an adjective?

"I wish you to come, whether I be there, or not."—In what mode is *be*?

"If I can learn him anything, he may remain."—In what mode is *learn*?

"My brother has been here yesterday. Julius Cæsar has been a succesful conqueror."—What improprieties in these sentences?

"If he comes to-morrow, you will see him. We fear him not, though he have ten thousand men."—What improprieties in these sentences?

"She died, loved and lamented by all. He loved and lamented her."—In which of these sentences are *loved* and *lamented* participles?

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LESSON XVIII.

A List of Irregular Verbs.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perf. Part.*
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke	awaked R
Bare, *to bring forth*	bare	born
Bear, *to carry*	bore	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent	bent R
Bereave	bereft	bereft R
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built	built
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught	caught R
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, *to stick, or adhere* / Cleave, *to split*	clove, *or* cleft	cleft, cloven R
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed	clad R
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew	crowed R
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, *to venture* / Dare, *to challenge*	durst	dared
Deal	dealt	dealt R
Dig	dug	dug R
Do	did	done

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Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perf. Part.*
Draw	drew	drawn
Drive	drove	driven
Drink	drank	drunk
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt R
Eat	eat *or* ate*	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	got
Gild	gilt	gilt R
Gird	girt	girt R
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Have	had	had
Hang	hung	hung
Hear	heard	heard
Hew	hewed	hewn R
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Knit	knit	knit R
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, *to lie down*	lay	lain
Load	loaded	laden R
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made

* Pronounced *et*.

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Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perf. Part.*
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown
Pay	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	rode, *or* ridden *
Ring	rung, rang	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn R
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shaped, shapen R
Shave	shaved	shaven R
Shear	sheared	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone	shone† R
Show	showed	shown
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Shrink	shrunk	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sung, sang	sung
Sink	sunk, sank	sunk
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit, slitted R
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown R
Speak	spoke	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spent	spent

* *Ridden* is nearly obsolete.

† Pronounced *shon*

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Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perf. Part.*
Spill	spilt	spilt R
Spin	spun	spun
Spit	spit, spat	spit, spitten*
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprung, sprang	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk	stunk
Stride	strode *or* strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck *or* stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strow *or* strew	strowed *or* strewed	strown, strowed, strewed R
Swear	swore	sworn
Sweat	swet	swet
Swell	swelled	swollen R
Swim	swum, swam	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve	thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden
Wax	waxed	waxen R
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	wrought	wrought *or* worked R
Wring	wrung	wrung R
Write	wrote	written

In reciting this Lesson, it is recommended, that the second and third columns be covered up, and that the pupil be required to repeat them, from seeing the first.

* *Spitten* is nearly obsolete.

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REVIEW.

The whole number of verbs in the English language, regular and irregular, simple and compounded, is about *four thousand, three hundred.* The number of irregular verbs, including defective, is about *one hundred and seventy seven.*

Irregular verbs are of various sorts; as,

1. Such as have the present and imperfect tenses, and perfect participle the *same;* as,

Pres.	*Imper.*	*Part.*
Cost	Cost	Cost
Put	Put	Put

2. Such as have the imperfect tense and perfect participle the same; as,

Pres.	*Imper.*	*Part.*
Abide	Abode	Abode
Sell	Sold	Sold

3. Such as have the present and imperfect tenses, and perfect participle different; as,

Pres.	*Imper.*	*Part.*
Arise	Arose	Arisen
Blow	Blew	Blown

Many verbs become irregular by contraction; as, feed, fed; leave, left—others by the termination *en;* as, fall, fell, fallen—and others by the termination *ght;* as, buy, bought; teach, taught.

In the preceding list of irregular verbs, some will be found to be conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly, in the imperfect tense, or participle, or both; and such are marked with the letter R.

Those verbs are not inserted in the above list, as irregular, which are *improperly* terminated by *t,* instead of *ed;* as *learnt, spelt,* &c. These should ever be avoided. Some verbs *properly* terminate in this way, and these are inserted; as *crept, dwelt, slept,* &c.

Several irregular terminations, once in good use, are now entirely obsolete; such as holpen, holden, molten, bounden swang, wrang, slank, &c.

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Questions on the Review.

How many verbs are there in the English language? How many are irregular?—There are three sorts of irregular verbs; what is the first?—What the second?—What the third?—Are any of the irregular verbs sometimes conjugated regularly?

LESSON XIX.

AN ADVERB is a part of speech joined to a verb, an adjective, to another adverb, and sometimes to a preposition, or an article, to express some quality or circumstance respecting it. Some adverbs are compared, after the manner of adjectives. The adverb may be distinguished from the adjective, as the latter always qualifies a noun or pronoun.

PREPOSITIONS serve to connect words one with another, and to show the relation between them.—The following are the principal prepositions in our language: *Of, to, for, by, with, in, into, within, without, over, under, through, above, below, between, beneath, from, beyond, at, up, down, before, behind, on, upon, among, after, about, against.*

The CONJUNCTION is chiefly used in connecting sentences; but sometimes connects only words. Conjunctions are divided into *copulative*, and *disjunctive*. The copulative conjunction serves to connect or continue a sentence, by expressing an addition, a supposition, a cause, &c. The following are the principal of this class: *And, if, that, both, then, since, for, because, therefore, wherefore.*

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The disjunctive conjunction serves, not only to connect and continue the sentence, but also to express opposition of meaning in different degrees. Of this class, the following are the principal: *But*, *or*, *nor*, *as*, *than*, *lest*, *though*, *unless*, *either*, *neither*, *yet*, *notwithstanding*.

INTERJECTIONS are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or emotions of the speaker; such as *Oh! Lo! Ah! Alas!*

QUESTIONS.

What are adverbs?—How are some adverbs compared?—How may the adverb and adjective be distinguished?—What are prepositions?—What are some of the principal prepositions in our language?—What is the use of the conjunction?—How are conjunctions divided?—Of what service is the copulative conjunction?—What are the principal conjunctions of this class?—Of what service is the disjunctive conjunction?—Which are the principal ones of this class?—What are interjections?

ILLUSTRATION.

"*He performed his part wisely and properly.*"—Which are the adverbs in this sentence?—What word do they qualify?

"*The piece was elegantly written, and was well received.*"—Here are two adverbs. Which are they?—And what words do they qualify?

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"*The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man; and was bestowed on him by his beneficent Creator for the greatest and most excellent uses; but alas! how often do we pervert it to the worst of purposes.*"—In this sentence, we have all the different parts of speech.—How many articles are there?—Which are definite; and which indefinite?—Which are the nouns?—Are they common or proper?—Which are singular; and which plural?—Which are in the nominative case; and which in the objective?—There are several adjectives in the sentence;—Which are they?—Which of them are in the superlative degree?—Which are the personal pronouns in this sentence?—In what person, number, and case, is each?—Here are three verbs;—Which are regular; and which irregular?—Which is neuter; which passive; and which active?—In what mode, tense, number, and person, is each?—Which are the adverbs?—Which the prepositions?—Which the conjunctions?—Which the interjection?

REVIEW.

I. *Of the adverb.*—As some may doubt whether the adverb ever qualifies a preposition, or an article, we subjoin the following examples:

"*Far in* a wild, unknown to public view,
From youth to age a rev'rend hermit grew."

"I think it unpardonable ignorance not to be acquainted with the history of our own country, *along with* the histories of Greece and Rome."

"I have not *even a* dollar."

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Adverbs are compared as follows;

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Soon	sooner	soonest
Often	oftener	oftenest
Much	more	most
Well	better	best

Adverbs ending in *ly* are compared by *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*; as, wisely, more wisely, most wisely. *More* and *most*, *less* and *least*, so much used in the comparison of adjectives, are themselves adverbs, qualifying the adjectives to which they are joined.

Adverbs seem originally to have been contrived to express compendiously in one word, what must otherwise have required two or more: as, "He acted wisely," for, he acted with wisdom; "prudently," for, with prudence; "He did it here," for, he did it in this place; "exceedingly," for, to a great degree; "often and seldom," for many, and for a few times; "very," for, in an eminent degree, &c.—Phrases which do the office of adverbs, may properly be termed adverbial phrases; "They labour *none at all;* They work *a great deal.*"—Here, the phrases in italics may be called adverbial phrases, because they qualify the verbs.

There are many words in the English language, that are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs: as, "More men than women were there;" or, "I am more diligent than he." In the former sentence, *more* is evidently an adjective, and in the latter an adverb. There are others that are sometimes used as substantives; and sometimes as adverbs; as, "To-day's lesson is longer than yesterday's:" here *to-day* and *yesterday* are substantives, because they are words that make sense of themselves, and admit besides of a possessive case; but in the phrase, "He came home yesterday, and sets out again to-day," they are adverbs of time; because they answer to the question *when*. The adverb *much* is used as all three: as, "Where much is given, much is required;" "Much money has been expended;" "It is much better to go than to stay." In the first of these sentences, *much* is a substantive; in the second, it is an adjective; and in the third, an adverb. In short, nothing but the sense can determine what they are.

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Adverbs, though very numerous, may be reduced to certain classes, the chief of which are those of Number, Order, Place, Time, Quantity, Manner or Quality, Doubt, Affirmation, Negation, Interrogation, and Comparison.

1. Of *number:* as, "Once, twice, thrice," &c.

2. Of *order:* as, "First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly, lastly, finally," &c.

3. Of *place:* as, "Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, whither, hither, thither, upwards, downwards, forwards, backwards, whence, hence, thence, whithersoever, &c.

4. Of *time.*

Of *time present:* as, "Now, to-day," &c.

Of *time past:* as, "Already, before, lately, yesterday, heretofore, hitherto, long since, long ago," &c.

Of *time to come:* as, "To-morrow, not yet, hereafter, henceforth, henceforward, by and by, instantly, presently, immediately, straightways," &c.

Of *time indefinite:* as, "Oft, often, oft-times, often-times, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, always, when, then, ever, never, again," &c.

5. Of *quantity:* as, "Much, little, sufficiently, how much, enough, abundantly," &c.

6. Of *manner* or *quality:* as, "Wisely, foolishly, justly, unjustly, quickly, slowly," &c. Adverbs of quality are the most numerous kind; and they are generally formed by adding the termination *ly* to an adjective or participle, or changing *le* into *ly*: as, "Bad, badly; cheerful, cheerfully; able, ably; admirable, admirably."

7. Of *doubt:* as, "Perhaps, peradventure, possibly, perchance."

8. Of *affirmation*: as, "Verily, truly, undoubtedly, doubtless, certainly, yea, yes, surely, indeed, really," &c.

9. Of *negation:* as, "Nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, in no wise," &c.

10. Of *interrogation:* as, "How, why, wherefore, whither," &c.

11. Of *comparison:* as, "More, most, better, best, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, little, alike," &c.

Besides the adverbs already mentioned, there are

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many which are formed by a combination of several of the prepositions with the adverbs of place, *here*, *there* and *where*: as, "Hereof, thereof, whereof; hereunto, thereto, whereto; hereby, thereby, whereby; herewith, therewith, wherewith; herein, therein, wherein; therefore, (i. e. there-for,) wherefore, (i. e. where-for,) hereupon, or hereon, thereupon, or thereon, whereupon, or whereon, &c. Except *therefore*, these are seldom used.

In some instances, the preposition suffers no change, but becomes an adverb merely by its application: as, when we say, "he rides *about*;" "he was *near* falling;" "but do not *after* lay the blame on me."

There are also some adverbs, which are composed of nouns, and the letter *a* used instead of *at*, *on*, &c.: as, "Aside, athirst, afoot, asleep, aboard, ashore, abed, aground, afloat," &c.

The words, *when* and *where*, and all others of the same nature, such as, *whence*, *whither*, *whenever*, *wherever*, &c. may be properly called *adverbial conjunctions;* because, they participate the nature both of adverbs and conjunctions: of conjunctions, as they conjoin sentences; of adverbs, as they denote the attributes either of *time* or of *place*.

It may be particularly observed, with respect to the word *therefore*, that it is an adverb, when, without joining sentences, it only gives the sense of, *for that reason*. When it gives that sense, and also connects, it is a conjunction: "He is good, *therefore* he is happy." The same observation may be extended to the words *consequently*, *accordingly*, and the like. When these are subjoined to *and*, or joined to *if*, *since*, &c. they are adverbs, the connexion being made without their help: when they appear single, and unsupported by any other connective, they may be called conjunctions.

The inquisitive scholar may naturally ask, what necessity there is for *adverbs of time*, when verbs are provided with *tenses*, to show that circumstance. The answer is, though tenses may be sufficient to denote the greater distinctions of time, yet, to denote them all by the tenses would be a perplexity without end. What a variety of forms must be given to the verb, to denote *yesterday*, *to-day*, *to-morrow*, *formerly*, *lately*, *just now*,

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now, *immediately*, *presently*, *soon*, *hereafter*, &c. It was this consideration that made the adverbs of time necessary, over and above the tenses.

II. *Of Prepositions.*—Other words, besides those enumerated on the list, in the lesson, are occasionally used as prepositions; such as around, amidst, betwixt, except, athwart, towards, besides, throughout, worth, notwithstanding.

The manner in which prepositions connect words and show the relation between them, will be best illustrated by examples. Expressions such as these, "*She looks me; I walk the window; we went Boston,*" &c. do not make complete sense, because the verbs are not properly connected with the words following, and the relation between them is not pointed out. But insert in each sentence a preposition, and the sense is then complete; as, "She looks *at* me; I walk *by* the window; we went *towards* Boston."

Verbs are frequently compounded of verbs and prepositions; as, to *up*hold, to *in*vest, to *over*look; and this composition gives a new sense to the verb. But the preposition is placed more frequently *after* the verb, and separate from it, in which case it does not less affect the sense. Thus, *to cast* means *to throw;* but *to cast up* an account means to *compute* it. So to *fall on*, to *bear out*, to *give over*, &c. have very different meanings from what they would, if the prepositions or adverbs (as they may be called) were not used.

The importance of the prepositions will be further perceived, by the explanation of a few of them. *Of* denotes possession, or an effect or consequence, and other relations connected with these; as, "The house *of* my friend," that is, *belonging to* my friend; "He died *of* a fever," that is, in *consequence* of a fever.

To or *unto* is opposed to *from;* as, "He rode *from* Boston *to* Worcester."

By is generally used with reference to the cause, agent, means, &c. as, "He was killed *by* a fall," that is, a fall *caused* his death; "The house was built *by* him," that is, he was the builder.

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With denotes the act of accompanying, uniting, &c. as, "We will go *with* you; They are friends *with* each other."—*With* also alludes to the instrument or means; as "He was cut *with* a knife."

There is a peculiar propriety in distinguishing the use of the prepositions *by* and *with*, as will appear in sentences like the following: "He walks *with* a staff *by* moonlight; he sits *by* the fire *with* his dog." Exchange these prepositions, and say, "He walks *by* a staff *with* moonlight; he sits *with* the fire *by* his dog;" and it will appear that they differ in signification more than one, at first view, would be apt to imagine.

In relates to time, place, and the state or manner of being or acting: as, "He was born *in* the year 1800, dwells *in* the city, and lives *in* affluence."

Into is used after verbs that imply motion of any kind; as, "He went *into* the country; copper is turned *into* brass."

Within relates to something comprehended in any place or time; as, "They are *within* the house."

Without is opposite in signification to within; as, "She stands *without* the gate." It is also opposite to *with*; as, "You may go *without* me."

Prepositions, as well as some other sorts of words, have a variety of significations. The following are some of the various meanings attached to the preposition *for*.

1. It signifies, *because of*: as, "Let me sing praises *for* his mercies and blessings."
2. *With regard to, with respect to*: as, "*For* me, no other happiness I own."
3. *In the character of*: as, "Let her go *for* an ungrateful woman."
4. *By means of; by interposition of*: as, "If it were not *for* Divine Providence, the world would be a scene of confusion."
5. *For the sake of*: as, "He died *for* those who knew him not."
6. *Conducive to*: as, "It is *for* the general good."
7. *With intention of going to a certain place*: as, "We sailed from Peru *for* China."

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8. *In expectation of:* as, "He waited long *for* the return of his friend."
9. *Instead of:* as, "We take a falling meteor *for* a star."
10. *In search of:* as, "He went far back *for* arguments."
11. *In favour of:* as, "One party was *for* the king, the other *for* the people.
12. *Becoming:* as, "It were more *for* his honour to submit on this occasion."
13. *Notwithstanding:* as, "*For* anything we know to the contrary, the design may be accomplished."
14. *To preserve:* as, "I cannot *for* my life comply with the proposal."
15. *In proportion to:* as, "He is not very tall, yet *for* his years he is tall."
16. *For the purpose of:* as, "It was constructed *for* sailing in rough weather."
17. *To be:* as, "No one ever took him *for* a very prudent man."
18. *In illustration of:* as, "Thus much, *for* the first point under consideration."
19. *In exchange for:* as, "They received gold *for* their glass beads."
20. *During:* as, "He was elected to the office *for* his life."
21. *In recompense of:* as, "*For* his great and numerous services, they voted him a statue."
22. After O, it denotes *an expression of desire:* as, "O *for* better times:" "O *for* a place of rest and peace."

The following are Latin prepositions and particles, which enter into the composition of a great number of our words.

A, AB, ABS—signify *from* or *away:* as, to *avert*, to turn from; to *abstract*, to draw away.

AD—signifies *to* or *at:* as, to *adhere*, to stick to; to *admire*, to wonder at.

ANTE—means *before*: as, *antecedent*, going before; to *antedate*, to date before.

CIRCUM—means *round about:* as, to *circumnavigate*, to sail round.

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CON, COM, CO, COL—signify *together:* as, to *conjoin*, to join together; to *compress*, to press together: to *cooperate*, to work together; to *collapse*, to fall together.

CONTRA—*against:* as, to *contradict*, to speak against.

DE—signifies *from, down:* as, to depart, to retire from; to *deject*, to cast down.

DI—*asunder:* as, *dilacerate*, to tear asunder.

DIS—reverses the meaning of the word to which it is prefixed: as, to disagree, to dispossess.

E, EX—*out:* as, to *eject*, to throw out; to *exclude*, to shut out.

EXTRA—*beyond:* as, *extraordinary*, beyond the ordinary course.

IN—before an adjective, like *un*, signifies privation: as, *indecent*, not decent; before a verb it has its simple meaning: as, to *infuse*, to pour in; to *infix*, to fix in.

INTER—*between:* as, to *intervene*, to come between; to *interpose*, to put between.

INTRO—*into, inwards:* as, to *introduce*, to lead into; to *introvert*, to turn inwards.

OB—denotes opposition: as, to *object*, to oppose: to *obstruct*, to block up; *obstacle*, something standing in opposition.

PER—*through:* as, to *perambulate*, to walk through; to *perforate*, to bore through.

POST—*after:* as, *post meridian*, afternoon; *Postscript*, written after, that is, after the letter.

PRÆ—*before:* as, to *pre-exist*, to exist before; to *prefix*, to fix before.

PRO—*forth* or *forwards:* as, to *protend*, to stretch forth; to *project*, to shoot forwards.

PRÆTER—*past* or *beyond:* as, *preterperfect*, pastperfect; *preternatural*, beyond the course of nature.

RE—*again* or *back:* as, *reprint*, to print again; to *retrace*, to trace back.

RETRO—*backwards: retrospective*, looking backwards, *retrograde*, going backwards.

SE—*aside, apart:* as, to *seduce*, to draw aside; to *secrete*, to put aside.

SUB—*under:* as, *subterranean*, lying under the earth, to *subscribe*, to *subsign*, to write under.

SUBTER—*under:* as, *subterfluous*, flowing under.

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SUPER—*above*, or *over:* as, *superscribed*, to write above; to *supervise*, to overlook.

TRANS—*over, beyond, from one place to another:* as, to *transport*, to carry over; to *transgress*, to pass beyond; to *transplant*, to remove from one soil to another.

The Greek prepositions and particles, used in the composition of English words, are the following: *a, amphi, anti, hyper*, &c.

A—signifies privation: as, *anonymous*, without name.

AMPHI—*both*, or *the two:* as, *amphibious*, partaking of both, or of two natures.

ANTI—*against:* as, *antimonarchical*, against government by a single person; *antiministerial*, against the ministry.

HYPER—*over and above:* as, *hypercritical*, over, or too critical.

HYPO—*under*, implying concealment or disguise: as, *hypocrite*, one dissembling his real character.

META—denotes change or transmutation: as, to *metamorphose*, to change the shape.

PERI—*round about:* as, *periphrasis*, circumlocution.

SYN, SYM—*together:* as, *synod*, a meeting, or coming together; *sympathy*, fellow-feeling, feeling together.

Some of the prepositions have the appearance and effect of *conjunctions:* as "*After* their prison-doors were opened," &c. "*Before* I die."

In some instances, prepositions are used as adverbs; as, "They had their reward soon *after;* he died not long *before;* he dwells *above.*"

III. *Of Conjunctions.*—The same word is occasionally used both as a conjunction and as an adverb; and sometimes, as a preposition. "I rest, *then*, upon this argument;" *then* is here a conjunction: in the following phrase, it is an adverb; "He arrived *then*, and not before." "I submitted, *for* it was vain to resist;" in this sentence, *for* is a conjunction: in the next it is a preposition; "He contended *for* victory only." In the first of the following sentences, *since* is a conjunction; in the second it is a preposition; and in the third, an ad-

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verb: "*Since* we must part, let us do it peaceably:" "I have not seen him *since* that time;" "Our friendship commenced long *since*."

Relative pronouns, as well as conjunctions, serve to connect sentences: as, "Blessed is the man *who* feareth the Lord, *and* keepeth his commandments."

A relative pronoun possesses the force both of a pronoun and a connective. Nay, the union by relatives is rather closer, than that by mere conjunctions. The latter may form two or more sentences into one; but, by the former, several sentences may be incorporated into one and the same *clause* of a sentence. Thus, "Thou seest a man, *and* he is called Peter," is a sentence consisting of two distinct clauses, united by the copulative *and*: but "The man *whom* thou seest is called Peter," is a sentence of one clause, and not less comprehensive than the other.

Conjunctions very often unite sentences, when they appear to unite only words; as in the following instances: "Duty *and* interest forbid vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom *or* folly governs us." Each of these forms of expression contains two sentences, namely; "Duty forbids vicious indulgences; interest forbids vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom governs us, or folly governs us."

Though the conjunction is commonly used to connect sentences together, yet, on some occasions, it merely connects words, not sentences: as, "The king *and* queen are an amiable pair;" where the affirmation cannot refer to each; it being absurd to say, that the *king* or the *queen only*, is an amiable pair. So in the instances, "Two *and* two are four;" "The fifth *and* sixth volumes will complete the set of books." Prepositions also, as before observed, connect words; but they do it to show the relation which the connected words have to each other: conjunctions when they unite words only, are designed to show the relations which those words, so united, have to other parts of the sentence.

As there are many conjunctions and connective phrases appropriated to the coupling of sentences, that are never employed in joining the members of a sentence; so there are several conjunctions appropriated to the latter use, which are never employed in the former; and

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some that are equally adapted to both those purposes: as, *again, further, besides,* &c. of the first kind; *than, lest, unless, that, so that,* &c. of the second; and *but, and, for, therefore,* &c. of the last.

IV. *Of Interjections.*—There are as many interjections, as there are modes of expressing wonder, pity, contempt, disgust, admiration, and salutation. Thus, *really! strange! away! behold! hark! hush! welcome! hail!* &c. may be regarded as interjections. Some interjections are followed by the nominative case independent; as, "*O child!* what are you doing?" some by the objective case; as, "*Ah me!* I die:"—and many have no determinate connexion with what precedes or follows them.

Questions on the Review.

What were adverbs contrived to express?—What are phrases, which do the office of adverbs, called?—Are adverbs ever used for other parts of speech?—To how many, and what, classes may adverbs be reduced?—Mention some of each class.—What words may be called adverbial conjunctions?—What necessity is there for adverbs of time?

Have prepositions a variety of significations?—How many are given of the preposition *for*?—Do the prepositions of other languages enter into the composition of English words?—Of what languages?—Are prepositions ever used as other parts of speech?

Are conjunctions ever used as other parts of speech?—What words, besides conjunctions, serve to connect sentences?—By what cases are the interjections sometimes followed?

LESSON XX.

REVIEW.

On derivation.—Words are derived from one another in various ways, viz.

1. Substantives are derived from verbs.

2. Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs.

3. Adjectives are derived from substantives.

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4. Substantives are derived from adjectives.
5. Adverbs are derived from adjectives

1. Substantives are derived from verbs: as, from "to love," comes "lover;" from "to visit, visiter;" from "to survive, surviver," &c.

In the following instances, and in many others, it is difficult to determine, whether the verb was deduced from the noun, or the noun from the verb, *viz.* "Love, to love; hate, to hate; fear, to fear; sleep, to sleep; walk, to walk; ride, to ride; act, to act;" &c.

2. Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs: as, from the substantive *salt*, comes "to salt;" from the adjective *warm*, "to warm;" and from the adverb *forward*, "to forward." Sometimes they are formed by lengthening the vowel, or softening the consonant: as, from "grass, to graze." Sometimes by adding *en;* as, from "length, to lengthen;" especially to adjectives: as, from "short, to shorten;" "bright, to brighten."

3. Adjectives are derived from substantives, in the following manner: Adjectives denoting plenty, are derived from substantives by adding *y;* as, from "health, healthy; wealth, wealthy; might, mighty," &c.

Adjectives denoting the matter out of which anything is made, are derived from substantives by adding *en:* as, from "oak, oaken; wood, wooden; wool woollen," &c.

Adjectives denoting abundance, are derived from substantives by adding *ful*: as, from "joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful," &c.

Adjectives denoting plenty, but with some kind of diminution, are derived from substantives, by adding *some:* as, from "light, lightsome; trouble, troublesome; toil, toilsome," &c.

Adjectives denoting want, are derived from substantives, by adding *less:* as, from "worth, worthless;" from "care, careless; joy, joyless," &c.

Adjectives denoting likeness, are derived from substantives, by adding *ly*: as, from "man, manly; earth, earthly; court, courtly," &c.

Some adjectives are derived from other adjectives, or from substantives, by adding *ish* to them; which termina-

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tion, when added to adjectives, imports diminution, or lessening the quality: as, "White, whitish;" i. e. somewhat white. When added to substantives, it signifies similitude, or tendency to a character: as, "Child, childish; thief, thievish."

Some adjectives are formed from substantives or verbs, by adding the termination *able;* and those adjectives signify capacity: as, "Answer, answerable; to change, changeable."

4. Substantives are derived from adjectives, sometimes by adding the termination *ness;* as, "White, whiteness; swift, swiftness:" sometimes by adding *th* or *t*, and making a small change in some of the letters: as, "Long, length; high, height."

5. Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives, by adding *ly*, or changing *le* into *ly* and denote the same quality as the adjectives from which they are derived: as, from "base," comes "basely;" from "slow, slowly;" from "able, ably."

There are so many other ways of deriving words from one another, that it would be extremely difficult, and nearly impossible, to enumerate them. The primitive words of any language are very few; the derivatives form much the greater number. A few more instances only can be given here.

Some substantives are derived from other substantives, by adding the terminations *hood* or *head, ship, ery, wick, rick, dom, ian, ment,* and *age.*

Substantives ending in *hood,* or *head,* are such as signify character or qualities : as, "Manhood, knighthood, falsehood," &c.

Substantives ending in *ship,* are those that signify office, employment, state, or condition : as, "Lordship, stewardship, partnership," &c. Some substantives ending in *ship,* are derived from adjectives : as, "Hard, hardship," &c.

Substantives which end in *ery,* signify action or habit: as, "Slavery, foolery, prudery," &c. Some substantives of this sort come from adjectives : as, "Brave, bravery," &c.

Substantives ending in *wick, rick,* and *dom,* denote dominion, jurisdiction, or condition : as, "Bailiwick, bishoprick, kingdom, dukedom, freedom," &c.

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Substantives which end in *ian*, are those that signify profession: as, "Physician, musician," &c. Those that end in *ment* and *age*, come generally from the French, and commonly signify the act or habit: as, "Commandment, usage."

Some substantives ending in *ard*, are derived from verbs or adjectives, and denote character or habit: as, "Drunk, drunkard; dote, dotard."

Some substantives have the form of diminutives; but these are not many. They are formed by adding the terminations *kin*, *ling*, *ing*, *ock*, *el*, and the like: as, "Lamb, lambkin; goose, gosling; duck, duckling; hill, hillock; cock, cockerel," &c.

That part of derivation, which consists in tracing English words to the Greek, Latin, and French languages, must be omitted. Johnson's Large Dictionary will furnish the best information on this head. The learned Horne Tooke, in his "Diversions of Purley," has given an ingenious account of the derivation and meaning of many of the adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions, by tracing them to their Saxon origin. The following is a list of them:—

ABOUT—is derived from *a*, on, and *bout*, signifying boundary: On the boundary or confines.

AMONG or AMONGST—comes from the passive participle *gemænced*, which is from *gemengan*, to mix.

AND—is from the imperative *an-ad*, which is from the verb, *anan-ad*, signifying to accumulate, to add to: as, 'Two *and* two are four;' that is, 'Two *add* two are four.'

SUNDER—comes from the participle *asundred* of the verb *asundrian*, to separate: and this verb is from *Sond*, sand.

ATHWART—is derived from the passive participle *athweoried* of the verb *athweorian*, to wrest.

BEYOND—comes from *be-geond : geond*, or *goned*, is the passive participle of the verb *gangan*, to go, to pass: Be passed, be gone.

BUT—from the imperative *bot*, of the verb *botan*, to boot, to superadd, to supply: as, 'The number three is not an even number, *but* an odd; that is, not an even number, *superadd*, (it is) an odd number.'

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BUT—from the imperative, *be-utan*, of the verb *beon-utan*, to be out. It is used by way of exception: as, 'She regards nobody, *but* him;' that is, 'nobody *be out* him.'

IF—comes from *gif*, the imperative of the verb *gifan*, to give: as, 'If you live honestly, you will live happily;' that is, '*give* you live honestly.'

LEST—from the participle, *lesed*, of the verb *lesan*, to dismiss.

THOUGH—from *thafig*, the imperative of the verb *thafigan*, to allow: as, 'Though she is handsome, she is not vain:' that is, '*Allow, grant*, she is handsome.'

UNLESS—comes from *onles*, the imperative of the verb *onlesun*, to dismiss or remove: as, 'Troy will be taken unless the palladium be preserved;' that is, 'Remove *the palladium be preserved*, Troy will be taken.'

WITH—the imperative of *withan*, to join: as, 'A house with a party-wall;' that is, 'A house *join* a party-wall.'

WITHOUT—comes from *wyrth-utan*, the imperative of the verb *wyrthan-utan*, to be out: as, 'A house without a roof;' that is, 'A house *be out* a roof.'

YET—is derived from *get*, the imperative of the verb *getan*, to get: as, 'Yet a little while;' that is, '*Get* a little time.'

THROUGH—comes from Gothic and Teutonic words, which signify door, gate, passage: as, 'They marched *through* a wilderness;' that is, 'They marched the *passage* a wilderness.'

FOR—is from Saxon and Gothic words, signifying, cause, motive: as, 'He died *for* his religion;' that is, 'He died, the *cause* his religion.'

FROM—is derived from *frum*, which signifies beginning, origin, source, &c.; as, 'The lamp hangs *from* the ceiling;' that is, 'Ceiling the place of *beginning* to hang.'

TO—comes from Saxon and Gothic words, which signify action, effect, termination, to act, &c.: as,

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'Figs come *from* Turkey *to* England:' that is, 'Figs come—*beginning* Turkey—*Termination* England.'

For remarks on the system of Horne Tooke, and of others who have followed him, and copied from him, the reader is referred to the preface to this work.

Questions on the Review.

How are words derived one from another?—From what are substantives derived?—From what are verbs derived?—Mention some of the ways in which adjectives are derived from nouns.—How are nouns derived from adjectives?—How are adverbs derived from adjectives?—How do nouns generally terminate which are derived from other nouns?—To what origin may many of the small English words be traced?

LESSON XXI.

THE third part of Grammar is SYNTAX, which treats of the agreement and construction of words in a sentence.

It consists chiefly of two parts, *concord* and *government*.—*Concord* is the agreement which one word has with another, in gender, number, case, or person.—*Government* is that power which one part of speech has over another, in directing its mode, tense, or case.

To produce the agreement and right disposition of words in a sentence, we have the following rules, *which should be very perfectly committed to memory:*

RULE I. Two nouns, signifying the same thing, are put, by apposition, in the same case; as, "*Paul, the Apostle;*" "*Alexander, the conqueror.*"

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RULE II. The verb must agree with its nominative case, in numb r and person.

RULE III. The infini- e mode, or part of a sentence, is sometimes the nominative to a verb, and in other respects does the office of a noun; as, "*To see the sun is pleasant.*"

RULE IV. When an address is made to a person, the noun, or pronoun, is in the nominative case independent; as, "Who art thou, *O man?*"

RULE V. A noun, joined with a participle, and standing independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute; as, "*Shame being lost*, all virtue is lost."

QUESTIONS.

Of what does Syntax treat?—Of what parts does it consist?—What is concord?—What is government?—How should the Rules of Syntax be committed to memory?—You will repeat the first five of these Rules in their order.—In the examples under the first Rule, how are the words, *Apostle*, and *conqueror*, parsed?—"*We was wiser than they.*"—"*Thou should love thy neighbour.*"—What violations of the second Rule, do you find in these sentences?—In the example under Rule third, how do you parse the verb *to see?*—To what does the adjective *pleasant* belong?—In the example under the next Rule, how do you parse *man?*—"*John, bring me a book.*"—In this sentence, how do you parse *John?*—In the example under Rule fifth, how do you parse *shame?*

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REVIEW.

A sentence is an assemblage of words, ranged in proper order, and concurring to make complete sense.

Sentences are of two kinds, simple and compound.

A simple sentence has in it but one subject, and one finite verb: as, 'Life is short.'

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences, connected together: as, 'Life is short, and art is long.' 'Idleness produces want, vice, and misery.'

As sentences themselves are divided into simple and compound, so the members of sentences may be divided likewise into simple and compound members: for whole sentences, whether simple or compounded, may become members of other sentences, by means of some additional connexion; as in the following example: 'The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib; but Israel doth not know; my people do not consider.' This sentence consists of two compounded members, each of which is subdivided into two simple members, which are properly called clauses.

There are three sorts of simple sentences; the *explicative*, or explaining; the *interrogative*, or asking; the *imperative*, or commanding.

An explicative sentence is, when a thing is said to be or not to be, to do or not to do, to suffer or not to suffer, in a direct manner: as, 'I am; thou writest; Thomas is loved.' If the sentence be negative, the adverb *not* is placed after the auxiliary, or after the verb itself when it has no auxiliary: as, 'I did not touch him;' or, 'I touched him not.'

In an interrogative sentence, or when a question is asked, the nominative case follows the principal verb, or the auxiliary: as, 'Was it he?' 'Did Alexander conquer the Persians?'

In an imperative sentence, when a thing is commanded to be, to do, to suffer, or not, the nominative case likewise follows the verb or the auxiliary: as, 'Go, thou traitor!' 'Do thou go:' 'Haste ye away:' unless the verb *let* be used; as, 'Let us be gone.'

A phrase is two or more words rightly put together, making sometimes part of a sentence, and sometimes a whole sentence.

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The principal parts of a simple sentence are, the subject, the attribute, and the object.

The subject is the thing chiefly spoken of; the attribute is the thing or action affirmed or denied of it; and the object is the thing affected by such action.

The nominative denotes the subject, and usually goes before the verb or attribute; and the word or phrase, denoting the object, follows the verb: as, 'A wise man governs his passions.' Here, *a wise man* is the subject; *governs*, the attribute, or thing affirmed; and *his passions*, the object.

Of Rule I. Nouns are not unfrequently set in apposition to *sentences*, or *parts of sentences;* as 'If a man had a complete idea of infinite, he could add two infinites together, or could make one infinite infinitely greater than another; *absurdities* too gross to be confuted.' Here the absurdities are the whole preceding propositions.

Of Rule II.—Every verb, except in the infinitive mode, ought to have a nominative, either expressed or understood; as, 'Awake, arise,' that is 'Awake ye, arise ye,' &c.

Every nominative case, except the case absolute, and the nominative independent, should belong to some verb, either expressed or understood; as 'Who wrote this? James;' that is, 'James wrote it.'

When a verb comes between two nouns, either of which may be understood as the subject of the affirmation, it may agree with either of them; but some regard must be had to that which is more naturally the subject of it, as also to that which stands next to the verb: as, 'His meat *was* locusts and wild honey;' 'A great cause of the low state of industry *were* the restraints put upon it;' 'The wages of sin *is* death.'

In such instances as those which follow, either of the clauses may be considered as the nominative to the verb. 'To show how the understanding proceeds herein, *is* the design of the following discourse.' This sentence may be inverted without changing a single word: 'The design of the following discourse *is*, to show how the understanding proceeds herein.' 'To fear no eye, and to suspect no tongue, *is* the great prerogative of innocence.' This sentence may be inverted: but, accord-

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ing to the English idiom, the pronoun *it* would, in that case, precede the verb : as, '*It* is the prerogative of innocence, to fear no eye, and to suspect no tongue.'

The nominative case is commonly placed before the verb ; but sometimes it is put after the verb, if it is a simple tense ; and between the auxiliary, and the verb or participle, if a compound tense : as,

1st, When a question is asked, a command given, or a wish expressed : as, 'Confidest thou in me?' 'Read thou ;' 'Mayst thou be happy !' 'Long live the King !'

2d, When a supposition is made, without the conjunction *if*: as, 'Were it not for this ;' 'Had I been there.'

3d, When a verb neuter is used : as, 'On a sudden appeared the king.' 'Above it stood the seraphim.'

4th, When the verb is preceded by the adverbs, *here*, *there*, *then*, *thence*, *thus*, &c. : as, 'Here am I ;' 'There was he slain ;' 'Then cometh the end ;' 'Thence ariseth his grief;' 'Hence proceeds his anger;' 'Thus was the affair settled.'

5th, When a sentence depends on *neither* or *nor*, so as to be coupled with another sentence as, 'Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall ye touch it, lest ye die.'

6th, When an emphatical adjective introduces a sentence : as, 'Happy is the man whose heart does not reproach him.'

Of Rule III.—When several phrases, connected by a copulative conjunction, expressed or understood, are made nominatives to a verb, the verb must be plural ; as, 'To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to keep the mind free from tumultuous emotions, *are* the best preservatives of health.'

The infinitive mode does the office of a substantive in the *objective* case ; as, 'Boys love *to play*,' that is, they love play.

Of Rule IV.—When an address is made to a person, the noun is *independent* of any verb. The nominative independent is, of course, always in the *second* person.

Of Rule V.—Good writers have in some few instances, though incorrectly, put the case absolute in the objective ; as,

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" ——— *him* destroyed,
Or won, to what may work his utter lo.
All this will soon follow."

Questions on the Review.

What is a sentence?—What is a simple sentence?—What is a compound sentence?—How many sorts of simple sentences are there?—What is an explicative sentence?—What an interrogative sentence?—What an imperative sentence?—What is a phrase?—What are the three principal parts of a simple sentence?—In what cases does the nominative come after the verb?—

LESSON XXII.

RULE VI. Two or more nouns singular, connected by one or more copulative conjunctions, have verbs and pronouns agreeing with them in the plural number; as, "Socrates and Plato *were* wise." But,

RULE VII. If the conjunctions connecting them be disjunctive, the agreeing words must be in the singular number; as, "John, or James, or Joseph *intends* to accompany me."

RULE VIII. A noun of multitude may have a verb or pronoun agreeing with it, either of the singular or plural number; as, "My people *do* not consider."

RULE IX. Neuter and Passive verbs may have the same case after them as before them, when both nouns refer to the same thing; as, "John is a good *child*." "We persuaded him to become a *Christian*."

RULE X. The relative pronoun must agree with its antecedent, in gender, number, and person; as, "Thou, *who* lovest wisdom."

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RULE XI. The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no nominative comes between it and the verb; but when a nominative intervenes, the relative is governed by some word in its own member of the sentence.

RULE XII. The article refers to a noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, to limit its signification.

RULE XIII. Every adjective, adjective pronoun, and participle, will belong to some noun either expressed or understood; as, "He is a *good* man." "*Few* are *happy*."

RULE XIV. One noun governs another signifying a different thing, in the possessive case.

QUESTIONS, &c.

You may begin with repeating all the Rules in the Lesson.—In the example under Rule sixth, why is *were* plural?—In the example under Rule seventh, why is *intends* singular?

"*Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains.*"—"*Our happiness or misery are placed in our own hands.*"—In the first of these sentences, is there any violation of Rule sixth?—In the second, is there any violation of Rule seventh?—In the example under Rule eighth, why is the verb plural, when the nominative is singular?—In the first example under Rule ninth, in what case is *child?*—In what case is *Christian*, in the second example?—In the example under rule tenth, in what number and person is *who?*—By what

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Rule is *who* nominative to *lovest?*—By what Rule is *lovest* in the second person, and singular number?—In the second example under Rule twelfth, to what noun do the adjectives *few* and *happy* belong?—"*My father's house;*"—In what case is *father's?*—By what rule is it governed by house?

REVIEW.

Of Rule VI.—When a copulative conjunction connects two or more nouns which refer to the same person or thing, the verb should be singular; as 'That able scholar and critic *has* been eminently useful to the cause of religion.'

When the pronoun *every*, expressed or understood, belongs to each of the nominatives which are connected by a copulative conjunction, the verb also should be singular; as, 'Every leaf, twig, and drop of water *teems* with life.'

When the nouns are nearly related, or scarcely distinguishable in sense, some authors have improperly thought it allowable to put the verbs, nouns, and pronouns, in the singular number. The following sentences are ungrammatical. 'Tranquillity and peace *dwells* there;' 'Ignorance and negligence *has* produced the effect.'

In many complex sentences, it is difficult for learners to determine, whether one or more of the clauses are to be considered as the nominative case; and consequently, whether the verb should be in the singular or plural number. The following are correct examples of both numbers. 'The ship, with all her furniture, *was* destroyed;' 'The prince, as well as the people, *was* blameworthy.' 'Virtue, honour, nay, even self-interest, *conspire* to recommend the measure.' 'Nothing *delights* me so much as the works of nature.'

If the singular nouns and pronouns, which are joined together by a copulative conjunction, be of several persons, in making the plural pronoun agree with them in person, the second takes place of the third, and the first

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of both; as, 'Thou and he shared it between you.' 'James, and thou, and I, are attached to our country.'

Of Rule VII.—When singular pronouns, or a noun and pronoun of different persons, are disjunctively connected, the verb must agree with that person which is placed nearest to it; as, 'I or thou art to blame;' 'Thou or I am in fault;' 'I, or thou, or he, is the author of it;' 'George or I am the person.' But it would be better to say, 'Either I am to blame or thou art,' &c.

When a disjunctive occurs between a singular noun or pronoun, and a plural one, the verb is made to agree with the plural noun and pronoun; but in this case, when it can be done, the plural noun or pronoun should be placed next to the verb; as, 'Neither poverty nor riches *were* injurious to him;' 'I or they *were* offended by it.'

Of Rule VIII.—In using the noun of multitude, special regard must be had to the import of the word, as conveying *unity* or *plurality* of idea. We should consider, whether the term immediately suggests the idea of the number it represents, or whether it exhibits to the mind the idea of the whole, as one thing. In the former case, the verb ought to be plural; in the latter, it ought to be singular. Thus, it seems improper to say, 'The peasantry *goes* barefoot, and the middle sort *makes* use of wooden shoes.' It would be better to say, 'The peasantry *go* barefoot, and the middle sort *make* use,' &c.; because the idea in both these cases is that of a number. On the contrary, there is a harshness in the following sentences, in which nouns of number have verbs plural: because the ideas they represent seem not to be sufficiently divided in the mind. 'The court of Rome *were* not without solicitude.' 'The house of commons *were* of small weight.' 'The house of lords *were* so much influenced by these reasons.' 'Stephen's party *were* entirely broken up by the captivity of their leader.' 'An army of twenty-four thousand *were* assembled.' 'What reason *have* the church of Rome for proceeding in this manner?' 'There is indeed no constitution so tame and careless of *their* own defence.' 'All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few figures, but *his* follies and vices are innumerable.' Is not *mankind* in this place a noun of multitude, and such

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as requires the pronoun referring to it, to be in the plural number *their*?

When a noun of multitude is preceded by a definitive word, which clearly limits the sense to an aggregate with an idea of unity, it requires a verb and pronoun to agree with it in the singular number; as, 'A company of troops *was* detached: *a* troop of cavalry *was* raised; *this* people *is* become a great nation; *that* assembly *was* numerous; a great number of men and women *was* collected.'

Of Rule IX.—This Rule is little more than a repetition of Rule I. As the neuter and passive verbs do not generally govern a case, it is plain that when they have a noun or pronoun on either side of them, meaning the *same thing*, or referring to the *same*, they ought to be in the same case.

Of Rule X.—Other pronouns, besides the relative, agree with their antecedents in *gender* and *number;* the relative in *gender*, *number*, and *person*.

Every relative must have an antecedent to which it refers, either expressed or implied: as, 'Who is fatal to others, is so to himself;' that is, '*the man who* is fatal to others.'

Who, *which*, *what*, and the relative *that*, though in the objective case, are always placed before the verb; as are also their compounds, *whoever*, *whosoever*, &c.: as, 'He whom ye seek;' 'this is what you want;' i. e. '*that which* you want, or the thing which, or that which you want;' 'Whomsoever you please to appoint.'

What is very frequently used as the representative of two cases; one the objective after a verb or preposition, and the other, the nominative to a subsequent verb: as, 'I heard *what* was said.' 'He related *what* was seen.' 'According to *what* was proposed.' 'We do not constantly love *what* has done us good.'—This peculiar construction may be explained, by resolving *what* into *that which*: as, 'I heard *that which* was said,' &c.

In a few instances, the relative is introduced as the nominative to a verb, *before* the sentence or clause which it represents: as, 'There was therefore, *which* is all that we assert, a course of life pursued by them, different from that which they before led.' Here, the relative *which* is the representative of the whole of the last part

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of the sentence; and its natural position is *after* that clause.

Whatever relative is used, in one of a series of clauses relating to the same antecedent, the same relative ought generally to be used in them all. In the following sentence, this rule is violated: 'It is remarkable, that Holland, against *which* the war was undertaken, and *that*, in the very beginning, was reduced to the brink of destruction, lost nothing.' The clause ought to have been, 'and *which* in the very beginning.'

The relative frequently refers to a whole clause in the sentence, instead of a particular word in it; as, 'The resolution was adopted hastily, and without due consideration, which produced great dissatisfaction;' that is, 'which thing,' namely the hasty adoption of the resolution.

The pronoun *that*, is frequently applied to persons as well as to things; and after an adjective in the superlative degree, and after the pronominal adjective *same*, it is generally used in preference to *who* or *which*: as, 'Charles XII. king of Sweden, was one of the greatest madmen *that* the world ever saw;' 'Catiline's followers were the most profligate *that* could be found in any city.' 'He is the same man *that* we saw before.'

There are cases, wherein we cannot conveniently dispense with the relative *that*, as applied to persons: as, first, after *who* the interrogative; 'Who *that* has any sense of religion, would have argued thus?' Secondly, when persons make but a part of the antecedent; 'The woman, and the estate, *that* became his portion, were rewards far beyond his desert.' In neither of these examples could any other relative have been used.

The pronoun relative *who* is so much appropriated to persons, that there is generally harshness in the application of it, except to the proper names of persons, or the general terms *man*, *woman*, &c. A term which only implies the idea of persons, and expresses them by some circumstance or epithet, will hardly authorize the use of it: as, 'That faction in England, *who* most powerfully opposed his arbitrary pretensions.' 'That faction *which*,' would have been better; and the same remark will serve for the following examples: 'France, *who*

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was in alliance with Sweden.' 'The court, *who*,' &c. 'The cavalry *who*,' &c. 'The cities *who* aspired at liberty.' 'That party among us *who*,' &c. 'The family *whom* they consider as usurpers.'

We hardly consider little children to be persons, because that term gives us the idea of reason and reflection: and therefore the application of the personal relative *who*, in this case, seems to be harsh: 'A child *who*.' *It*, though neuter, is generally applied, when we speak of an infant or child: as, '*It* is a lovely infant:' '*It* is a healthy child.' The personal pronoun is still more improperly applied to animals: 'A lake frequented by that fowl, *whom* nature has taught to dip the wing in water'

When the name of a person is used merely as a name, and it does not refer to the person, the pronoun *who* ought not to be applied. 'It is no wonder if such a man did not shine at the court of Queen Elizabeth, *who* was but another name for prudence and economy.' Better thus; 'Whose name was but another word for prudence,' &c.

The word *whose* begins likewise to be restricted to persons; yet it is not done so generally, but that good writers, even in prose, use it when speaking of things. The construction is not, however, always pleasing, as we may see in the following instances: 'Pleasure, *whose* nature,' &c. 'Call every production, *whose* parts and *whose* nature,' &c.

In one case, however, custom authorizes us to use *which* with respect to persons; and that is when we want to distinguish one person of two, or a particular person among a number of others. We should then say, '*Which* of the two,' or, '*Which* of them is he or she?'

As the pronoun relative has no distinction of number, we sometimes find an ambiguity in the use of it: as, when we say, 'The disciples of Christ, *whom* we imitate;' we may mean the imitation either of Christ, or of his disciples. The accuracy and clearness of the sentence, depend very much upon the proper and determinate use of the relative, so that it may readily present its antecedent to the mind of the hearer or reader, without any obscurity or ambiguity.

When the relative is preceded by two nominatives of

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different persons, it may agree in person with either, according to the sense; as, 'I am the man *who command* you;' or 'I am the man *who commands* you.' But when the relative and the verb have been determined to agree with either of the preceding nominatives, that agreement must be preserved throughout the sentence.

Of Rule XI.—When both the antecedent and the relative become nominatives, each to different verbs, the relative is the nominative to the *former*, and the antecedent to the *latter* verb; as "*True philosophy, which is* the ornament of our nature, *consists* chiefly in the love and practice of virtue.'

When the pronoun is of the interrogative kind, the noun or pronoun, containing the answer, must be in the same case as that which contains the question; as '*Whose* books are these? *John's*. *Who* gave them to him? *I*. Of *whom* did you buy them? Of *him* who keeps at the Bible and crown. *Whom* did you see there? *Him* and his clerk.'

Of Rule XII.—It is the nature of both the articles to determine or limit the thing spoken of. *A* determines it to be one single thing of the kind, leaving it still uncertain which: *the* determines which it is, or of many, which they are.

The following passage will serve as an example of the different uses of *a* and *the*, and of the force of the substantive without any article. '*Man* was made for society, and ought to extend his good will to all men: but *a man* will naturally entertain a more particular kindness for *the men*, with whom he has the most frequent intercourse; and enters into a still closer union with *the man* whose temper and disposition suit best with his own.'

There is in some instances, a peculiar delicacy in the application or omission of the indefinite article. This will be seen in the following instances. We commonly say; 'I do not intend to turn critic on this occasion;' not 'turn *a* critic.' On the other hand, we properly add the article in this phrase; 'I do not intend to become *a* critic in this business;' not 'to become critic.' It is correct to say, with the article, 'He is in *a* great hurry;' but not, 'in great hurry.' And yet, in this expression, 'He is in great haste,' the article should be omitted: it would be improper to say, 'He is in *a* great haste.' A

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nice discernment, and accurate attention to the best usage, are necessary to direct us on these occasions.

As the articles are sometimes misapplied, it may be of some use to exhibit a few instances: 'And I persecuted this way unto *the* death.' The apostle does not mean any particular sort of death, but death in general: the definite article therefore is improperly used: it ought to be 'unto death,' without any article.

'When he, the Spirit of Truth, is come, he will guide you into all truth;' that is, according to this translation, 'into all truth whatsoever, into truth of all kinds;' very different from the meaning of the evangelist, and from the original, 'into all *the* truth;' that is, 'into all evangelical truth; all truth necessary for you to know.'

'Who breaks a butterfly upon *a* wheel?' it ought to be '*the* wheel;' meaning an instrument for the particular purpose of torturing animals. 'The Almighty hath given reason to *a* man to be a light unto him:' it should rather be, 'to *man*,' in general. 'This day is salvation come to this house, forasmuch as he is also *the* son of Abraham:' it ought to be, '*a* son of Abraham.'

These remarks may serve to show the great importance of the proper use of the article, and the excellence of the English language in this respect; which, by means of its two articles, does most precisely determine the extent of signification of common names.

A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made by the use or omission of the article *a*. If I say, 'He behaved with *a* little reverence;' my meaning is positive. If I say, 'He behaved with little reverence;' my meaning is negative. And these two are by no means the same, or to be used in the same cases. By the former, I rather praise a person; by the latter, I dispraise him. For the sake of this distinction, which is a very useful one, we may better bear the seeming impropriety of the article *a* before nouns of number. When I say, 'There were few men with him;' I speak diminutively, and mean to represent them as inconsiderable; whereas, when I say, 'There were *a* few men with him;' I evidently intend to make the most of them.

In general, it may be sufficient to prefix the article to the former of two words in the same construction; though

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the French never fail to repeat it in this case. 'There were many hours, both of the night and day, which he could spend, without suspicion, in solitary thought.' It might have been 'of *the* night and *of the* day.' And, for the sake of emphasis, we often repeat the article in a series of epithets. 'He hoped that this title would secure him *an* ample and *an* independent authority.'

In common conversation, and in familiar style, we frequently omit the articles, which might be inserted with propriety in writing, especially in a grave style. 'At worst, time might be gained by this expedient.' 'At *the* worst,' would have been better in this place. 'Give me here John Baptist's head.' There would have been more dignity in saying, 'John *the* Baptist's head;' or, 'The head of John *the* Baptist.'

The article *the* has sometimes a different effect, in distinguishing a person, by an epithet. 'In the history of Henry the IVth, by Father Daniel, we are surprised at not finding him *the* great man.' 'I own I am often surprised that he should have treated so coldly, a man so much *the* gentleman.'

This article is often elegantly put, after the manner of the French, for the possessive adjective pronoun: as, 'He looks him full in *the* face;' that is, 'in *his* face.' 'In his presence they were to strike *the* forehead on the ground;' that is '*their foreheads*.'

We sometimes, according to the French manner, repeat the same article, when the adjective, on account of any clause depending upon it, is put after the substantive. 'Of all the considerable governments among the Alps, a commonwealth is a constitution *the* most adapted of any to the poverty of those countries.' 'With such a specious title as that of blood, which with the multitude is always a claim, *the* strongest, and *the* most easily comprehended.' 'They are not the men in the nation *the* most difficult to be replaced.'

The indefinite article has, sometimes, the meaning of *every* or *each:* as, 'They cost five shillings a dozen;' that is, 'every dozen.'

> 'A man he was to all the country dear,
> And passing rich with forty pounds a year.'—*Goldsmith.*

That is, 'every year.'

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OF RULE XIII.—The adjective pronouns this, that, these, and those, with the numeral adjectives, must agree in *number* with the nouns to which they belong. The nouns *means* and *amends* are an exception to this remark. Thus we say,' By *this means*, or *that means*,' as well as 'By *these means*.' 'He gained the approbation of his country, and with *this amends* he was content.'

The *possessive* adjective pronouns are not required to agree with their nouns in number; as, '*Our child*, *our children*; *your house*, *their houses*.' The *distributive* adjective pronouns belong to nouns in the *singular number only*, except where the plural noun conveys a collective idea; as '*Every tree* is known by its fruit; *each man* departed to his home, *every six months*,' &c.

Persons are apt, in conversation, to use the personal pronoun *them* instead of the adjective pronouns *these* or *those*; as 'Give me *them* apples'—a very gross impropriety.

Adjectives are sometimes improperly applied as adverbs: as, 'Indifferent honest; excellent well; miserable poor,' instead of 'Indifferently honest; excellently well; miserably poor.' 'He behaved himself conformable to that great example;' '*conformably*.' 'Endeavour to live hereafter suitable to persons in your station;' '*suitably*.' 'I can never think so very mean of him;' '*meanly*.' 'He describes this river agreeable to the common reading;' '*agreeably*.' 'Agreeable to my promise, I now write;' '*agreeably*.' 'Thy exceeding great reward:' When united to an adjective, or adverb not ending in *ly*, the word *exceeding* has *ly* added to it; as, 'exceedingly dreadful, exceedingly great;' 'exceedingly well, exceedingly more active;' but when it is joined to an adverb or adjective, having that termination, the *ly* is omitted: as, 'Some men think exceeding clearly, and reason exceeding forcibly:' 'She appeared on this occasion, exceeding lovely:' 'He acted in this business *bolder* than was expected:' 'They behaved the *noblest*, because they were disinterested.' They should have been, '*more boldly*; *most nobly*.'—The adjective pronoun *such* is often misapplied: as, 'He was such an extravagant young man, that he spent his whole patrimony in a few years:' it should be, '*so extravagant a young man*.' I never before saw such large trees:' '*saw*

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trees so *large*.' When we refer to the species or nature of a thing, the word *such* is properly applied: as, 'Such a temper is seldom found:' but when degree is signified, we use the word *so:* as, 'So bad a temper is seldom found.'

Adverbs are likewise improperly used as adjectives: as, 'The tutor addressed him in terms rather warm, but suitably to his offence;' '*suitable*.' 'They were seen wandering about *solitarily* and distressed;' '*solitary*.' 'He lived in a manner agreeably to the dictates of reason and religion;' '*agreeable*.' 'The study of syntax should be previously to that of punctuation;' '*previous*.'*

Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided: such as, 'A worser conduct;' 'On lesser hopes;' 'A more serener temper;' 'The most straitest sect;' 'A more superior work.' They should be, 'worse conduct;' 'less hopes;' 'a more serene temper;' 'the straitest sect;' 'a superior work.'

Adjectives that have in themselves a superlative signification, do not properly admit of the superlative or comparative form superadded: such as, 'Chief, extreme, perfect, right, universal, supréme,' &c.; which are sometimes improperly written, 'Chiefest, extremest, perfect-

* Young persons who study grammar, find it difficult to decide, in particular constructions, whether an adjective, or an adverb, ought to be used. A few observations on this point, may serve to inform their judgment, and direct their determination.—They should carefully attend to the definitions of the adjective and the adverb; and consider whether, in the case in question, *quality* or *manner*, is indicated. In the former case, an adjective is proper; in the latter, an adverb. A number of examples will illustrate this direction, and prove useful on other occasions.

She looks cold—She looks coldly on him
He feels warm—He feels warmly the insult offered to him.
He became sincere and virtuous—He became sincerely virtuous
She lives free from care—He lives freely at another's expense.
Harriet always appears neat—She dresses neatly.
Charles has grown great by his wisdom—He has grown greatly in reputation.
They now appear happy—They now appear happily in earnest.
The statement seems exact—The statement seems exactly in point.

The verb *to be*, in all its moods and tenses, generally requires the word immediately connected with it to be an adjective, not an adverb; and consequently, when this verb can be substituted for any

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est, rightest, most universal, most supreme,' &c. The following expressions are therefore improper. 'He sometimes claims admission to the *chiefest* offices;' 'The quarrel became so *universal* and national;' 'A method of attaining the *rightest* and greatest happiness.' The phrases, so perfect, so right, so extreme, so universal, &c. are incorrect; because they imply that one thing is less perfect, less extreme, &c. than another, which is not possible.

Inaccuracies are often found in the way in which the degrees of comparison are applied and construed. The following are examples of wrong construction in this respect: 'This noble nation hath, of all others, admitted fewer corruptions.' The word *fewer* is here construed precisely as if it were the superlative. It should be, 'This noble nation hath admitted fewer corruptions than any other.' We commonly say, 'This is the weaker of the two;' or, 'The weakest of the two;' but the former is the regular mode of expression, because there are only two things compared 'The vice of covetousness is what enters deepest into the soul of any other.' 'He celebrates the church of England as the most perfect of all others.' Both these modes of expression are faulty: we should not say, 'The best of any man,' or,

other, without varying the sense or the construction, that other verb must also be connected with an adjective. The following sentences elucidate these observations: 'This is agreeable to our interest; That behaviour was not suitable to his station; Rules should be conformable to sense;' 'The rose smells sweet; How sweet the hay smells! How delightful the country appears! How pleasant the fields look! The clouds look dark; How black the sky looked! The apple tastes sour! How bitter the plums tasted! He feels happy.' In all these sentences, we can, with perfect propriety, substitute some tenses of the verb *to be*, for the other verbs. But in the following sentences we cannot do this: 'The dog smells disagreeably; George feels exquisitely; How pleasantly she looks at us!'

The directions contained in this note are offered as useful, not as complete and unexceptionable. Anomalies in language everywhere encounter us; but we must not reject rules, because they are attended with exceptions.

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'The best of any other man,' for 'the best of men.' The sentences may be corrected by substituting the comparative in the room of the superlative. 'The vice, &c. is what enters deeper into the soul than any other.' 'He celebrates, &c. as more perfect, or less imperfect, than any other.' It is also possible to retain the superlative, and render the expression grammatical, 'Covetousness, of all vices, enters the deepest into the soul.' 'He celebrates, &c. as the most perfect of all churches.' These sentences contain other errors, against which it is proper to caution the learner. The words *deeper*, and *deepest*, being intended for adverbs, should have been *more deeply*, *most deeply*. The phrases *more perfect*, and *most perfect*, are improper; because perfection admits of no degrees of comparison. We may say *nearer* or *nearest* to perfection, or more or less imperfect.

In some cases, adjectives should not be separated from their substantives, even by words which modify their meaning, and make but one sense with them; as, 'A large enough number surely.' It should be, 'a number large enough.' 'The lower sort of people are good enough judges of one not very distant from them.'

The adjective is usually placed before its substantive: as, 'A *generous* man;' 'How *amiable* a woman!' The instances in which it comes after the substantive, are the following:

1st, When something depends upon the adjective; and when it gives a better sound, especially in poetry: as, 'A man *generous* to his enemies:' 'Feed me with food *convenient* for me;' 'A tree three feet *thick*;' 'A body of troops fifty thousand *strong*;' 'The torrent tumbling through rocks *abrupt*.'

2d, When the adjective is emphatical: as, 'Alexander the *Great*;' 'Lewis the *Bold*;' 'Goodness *infinite*;' 'Wisdom *unsearchable*.'

3d, When several adjectives belong to one substantive: as, 'A man just, wise, and charitable;' 'A woman modest, sensible, and virtuous.'

4th, When the adjective is preceded by an adverb: as, 'A boy regularly studious;' 'A girl unaffectedly modest.'

5th, When the verb *to be*, in any of its variations, comes between a substantive and an adjective, the

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adjective may frequently either precede or follow it: as, 'The man is *happy;*' or, '*happy* is the man who makes virtue his choice:' 'The interview was *delightful;*' or, '*delightful* was the interview.'

6th, When the adjective expresses some circumstance of a substantive placed after an active verb: as, 'Vanity often renders its possessor *despicable.*' In an exclamatory sentence, the adjective generally precedes the substantive; as, 'How *despicable* does vanity often render its possessor!'

There is sometimes great beauty, as well as force, in placing the adjective before the verb, and the substantive immediately after it: as, 'Great is the Lord! just and true are thy ways, thou King of saints!'

Sometimes the word *all* is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it. 'Ambition, interest, honour, *all* concurred.' Sometimes a substantive, which likewise comprehends the preceding particulars, is used in conjunction with this adjective pronoun: as, 'Royalists, republicans, churchmen, sectaries, courtiers, patriots, *all parties*, concur in the illusion.'

A substantive with its adjective is reckoned as one compound word; whence they often take another adjective, and sometimes a third, and so on: as, 'An old man; a good old man; a very learned, judicious, good old man.'

Though the adjective always relates to a substantive, it is, in many instances, put as if it were absolute; especially where the noun has been mentioned before, or is easily understood, though not expressed: 'I often survey the green fields, as I am very fond of *green;*' 'The wise, the virtuous, the honored, famed, and great,' that is, 'persons;' 'The twelve,' that is, 'apostles;' 'Have compassion on the *poor*; be feet to the *lame*, and eyes to the *blind.*'

Substantives are often used as adjectives. In this case, the word so used is sometimes unconnected with the substantive to which it relates; sometimes connected with it by a hyphen; and sometimes joined to it, so as to make the two words coalesce. The total separation is proper, when either of the two words is long, or when they cannot be fluently pronounced as one word: as, 'an adjective pronoun, a silver watch, a stone cistern:' the

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hyphen is used, when both the words are short, and are readily pronounced as a single word: as, 'coal-mine, corn-mill, fruit-tree;' the words coalesce, when they are readily pronounced together; have a long established association; and are in frequent use; as, 'honeycomb, gingerbread, inkhorn, Yorkshire.'

Sometimes the adjective becomes a substantive, and has another adjective joined to it: as, 'The chief good;' 'The vast immense of space.'

Some adjectives of number are more easily converted into substantives, than others. Thus we more readily say, 'A million of men,' than 'a thousand of men.' On the other hand, it will hardly be allowable to say, 'A million men,' whereas, 'a thousand men,' is quite familiar. Yet in the plural number, a different construction seems to be required. We say, 'some hundreds,' or 'thousands,' as well as 'millions of men.' Perhaps, on this account, the words *millions*, *hundreds*, and *thousands*, will be said to be substantives.

When an adjective has a preposition before it, and the substantive is understood, the words assume the nature of an adverb, and may be considered as an adverbial phrase; as, 'In general, in particular, in common,' &c.; that is, 'Generally, particularly, commonly.'

Enow was formerly used as the plural of *enough*: but it is now obsolete.

Of Rule XIV.—The preposition *of* joined to a substantive, is frequently equivalent to the possessive case: as, 'A Christian's hope,' 'The hope of a Christian.' But it is only so, when the expression can be converted into the regular form of the possessive case. We can say, 'The reward of virtue,' and 'Virtue's reward;' but though it is proper to say, 'A crown of gold,' we cannot convert the expression into the possessive case, and say, 'Gold's crown.'

Substantives govern pronouns as well as nouns, in the possessive case: as, 'Every tree is known by *its* fruit;' 'Goodness brings *its* reward;' 'That desk is *mine*.'

The genitive *its* is often improperly used for *'tis* or *it is*: as, 'Its my book;' instead of, 'it is my book.'

The pronoun *his*, when detached from the noun to which it relates, is to be considered, not as a possessive

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adjective pronoun, but as the genitive case of the personal pronoun: as, 'This composition is *his*.' 'Whose book is that?' '*His*.' If we use the noun itself, we should say, 'This composition is John's.' 'Whose book is that?' 'Eliza's.' The position will be still more evident, when we consider that both the pronouns, in the following sentence, must have a similar construction: 'Is it *her* or *his* honor that is tarnished?' 'It is not *hers*, but *his*.'

Sometimes a substantive in the genitive or possessive case stands alone, the latter one by which it is governed being understood: as, 'I called at the bookseller's,' that is, 'at the bookseller's *shop*.'

If several nouns come together in the possessive case, the apostrophe with *s* is annexed to the last, and understood in the rest: as, 'John and Eliza's books:' 'This was my father, mother, and uncle's advice.' But when any words intervene, perhaps on account of the increased pause, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each: as, 'They are John's as well as Eliza's books;' 'I had the physician's, the surgeon's, and the apothecary's assistance.' The following distinction, on this point, appears to be worthy of attention. When any subject or subjects are considered as the common property of two or more persons, the sign of the possessive case is fixed only to the name of the last person: as 'This is Henry, William, and Joseph's estate.' But when several subjects are considered, as belonging separately to distinct individuals, the names of the individuals have the sign of the possessive case annexed to each of them: as, 'These are Henry's, William's, and Joseph's estates.'—It is, however, better to say, 'It was the advice of my father, mother, and uncle;' 'I had the assistance of the physician, the surgeon, and the apothecary;' 'This estate belongs in common to Henry, William, and Joseph.'

Little explanatory circumstances are particularly awkward between a genitive case, and the word which usually follows it: as, 'She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding.' It ought to be, 'the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him.'—The word in the genitive case is frequently

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placed improperly: as, 'This fact appears from Dr. Pearson of Birmingham's experiments.' It should be, 'from the experiments of Dr. Pearson of Birmingham.'

When a sentence consists of terms signifying a name and an office, or of any expressions by which one part is descriptive or explanatory of the other, it may occasion some doubt to which of them the sign of the genitive case should be annexed: or whether it should be subjoined to them both. Thus, some would say, 'I left the parcel at Smith's the bookseller;' others, 'at Smith the bookseller's;' and perhaps others, 'at Smith's the bookseller's.' The first of these forms is most agreeable to the English idiom; and if the addition consists in two or more words, the case seems to be less dubious: as, 'I left the parcel at Smith's, the bookseller and stationer.' The point will be still clearer, if we supply the ellipsis in these sentences, and give the equivalent phrases, at large: thus, 'I left the parcel at the house of Smith the bookseller;' 'I left it at Smith the house of the bookseller;' 'I left it at the house of Smith the house of the bookseller.' By this process, it is evident, that only the first mode of expression is correct and proper. But as this subject requires a little further explanation to make it intelligible to the learners, I shall add a few observations calculated to unfold its principles.

A phrase in which the words are so connected and dependent, as to admit of no pause before the conclusion, necessarily requires the genitive sign at or near the end of the phrase: as, 'Whose prerogative is it? It is the king of Great Britain's; 'That is the duke of Bridgwater's canal;' 'The bishop of Landaff's excellent book;' 'The Lord mayor of London's authority;' 'The captain of the guard's house.'

When words in apposition follow each other in quick succession, it seems also most agreeable to our idiom, to give the sign of the genitive a similar situation; especially if the noun which governs the genitive be expressed: as, 'The emperor Leopold's;' 'Dionysius the tyrant's;' 'For David my *servant's* sake;' 'Give me John the *Baptist's* head;' 'Paul the *apostle's* advice.' But when a pause is proper, and the governing noun

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not expressed; and when the latter part of the sentence is extended; it appears to be requisite that the sign should be applied to the first genitive, and understood to the other: as, 'I reside at Lord Stormont's, my old patron and benefactor;' 'Whose glory did he emulate? He emulated Cæsar's, the greatest general of antiquity.' In the following sentences, it would be very awkward to place the sign, either at the end of each of the clauses, or at the end of the latter one alone: as, 'These psalms are David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the Jewish people:' 'We staid a month at lord Lyttleton's, the ornament of his country, and the friend of every virtue.' The sign of the genitive case may very properly be understood at the end of these members, an ellipsis at the latter part of the sentences being a common construction in our language; as the learner will see by one or two examples: 'They wished to submit, but he did not;' that is, 'he did not *wish to submit*;' 'He said it was their concern, but not his;' that is, '*not his concern.*'

The English genitive has often an unpleasant sound; so that we daily make more use of the participle *of* to express the same relation: There is something awkward in the following sentences, in which this method has not been taken. 'The general in the army's name, published a declaration.' 'The common's vote.' 'The lord's house.' 'Unless he is very ignorant of the kingdom's condition.' It were certainly better to say, 'In the name of the army;' 'The votes of the commons;' 'The house of lords;' 'The condition of the kingdom.' It is also rather hard to use two English genitives with the same substantive: as, 'Whom he acquainted with the pope's and the king's pleasure.' 'The pleasure of the pope and the king,' would have been better.

We sometimes meet with three substantives dependent on one another, and connected by the preposition *of* applied to each of them: as, 'The severity of the distress of the son of the king, touched the nation;' but this mode of expression is not to be recommended. It would be better to say, 'The severe distress of the king's son, touched the nation.' We have a striking instance of this laborious mode of expression, in the following

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sentence : ' *Of* some *of* the books *of* each *of* these classes *of* literature, a catalogue will be given at the end of the work.'

In some cases, we use both the genitive termination and the preposition *of* : as, ' It is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's.' Sometimes indeed, unless we throw the sentence into another form, this method is absolutely necessary, in order to distinguish the sense, and to give the idea of property, strictly so called, which is the most important of the relations expressed by the genitive case : for the expressions, ' This picture of my friend,' and ' This picture of my friend's,' suggest very different ideas. The latter only is that of property in the strictest sense. The idea would, doubtless, be conveyed in a better manner, by saying, ' This picture belongs to my friend.'

When this double genitive, as some grammarians term it, is not necessary to distinguish the sense, and especially in a grave style, it is generally omitted. Except to prevent ambiguity, it seems allowable only in cases which suppose the existence of a plurality of subjects of the same kind. In the expressions, ' A subject of the emperor's;' ' A sentiment of my brother's;' more than one subject and one sentiment, are supposed to belong to the possessor. But when this plurality is neither intimated, nor necessarily supposed, the double genitive, except as before mentioned, should not be used: as, ' This house of the governor is very commodious;' ' The crown of the king was stolen;' ' That privilege of the scholar was never abused.' But after all that can be said for this double genitive, as it is termed, some grammarians think, that it would be better to avoid the use of it altogether, and to give the sentiment another form of expression.

When an entire clause of a sentence, beginning with a participle of the present tense, is used as one name, or to express one idea or circumstance, the noun on which it depends may be put in the genitive case; thus instead of saying, ' What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily?' that is, ' What is the reason of this person, in dismissing his servant so hastily?' we may say, and perhaps ought to say, ' What is the rea-

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son of this person's dismissing of his servant so hastily?' Just as we say, 'What is the reason of this person's hasty dismission of his servant?' So also, we say, 'I remember it being reckoned a great exploit;' or more properly, 'I remember it's being reckoned,' &c. The following sentence is correct and proper: 'Much will depend on the *pupil's composing*, but more on *his reading* frequently.' It would not be accurate to say, 'Much will depend on the *pupil composing*,' &c. We also properly say; 'This will be the effect *of the pupil's composing* frequently;' instead of, '*Of the pupil composing* frequently.' The participle, in such constructions, does the office of a substantive; and it should therefore have a correspondent regimen.

Questions on the Review.

Are there no exceptions to Rule VI?—What are they?—To what should we have special regard, in using the noun of multitude?—When the noun of multitude is preceded and limited by a definitive word, &c. in what number must the verb be?—What difference is mentioned between the relative pronoun and others?—What must every relative pronoun have?—Does the relative always refer to a particular word?—Is there any case in which *which* is used in respect to persons?—When the relative is preceded by two nominatives of *different* persons, with which may it agree?—What is the nature and office of the article?—In what cases has the indefinite article the meaning of *each* or *every*?—What adjectives must agree in *number* with their nouns?—Is there danger of using adjectives as adverbs, and adverbs as adjectives?—What consideration must guide us in this respect? (See Note)—What adjectives do not admit of the comparative and superlative form?—In what instances should the adjective be placed after its substantive?

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LESSON XXIII

RULE XV. Active verbs govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case; as, "We *love her.*" "They *learn the lesson.*"

RULE XVI. Neuter verbs sometimes take an objective after them, of the same general signification with themselves; as, "To *run a race.*" "He *dreamed a dream.*"

RULE XVII. Passive verbs of asking, teaching, and some others, sometimes take an objective after them; as, "She *was asked the question.*" "She *was taught her lesson.*"

RULE XVIII. Participles may have the same case after them, as their verbs do, from which they are derived; as, "*Loving the Saviour*, we desire to follow him." "*Being God*, he became man."

RULE XIX. The infinitive mode may be governed by a verb, noun, participle, or adjective; as, "He *came to instruct* us." "He is *worthy to be regarded.*"

RULE XX. The infinitive mode is sometimes absolute, not depending on the rest of the sentence.

RULE XXI. The infinitive mode is used after *as*, instead of the indicative.

RULE XXII. Verbs that follow bid, dare, feel, let, make, and some others, are in the infinitive, without the sign *to;* as, "I bade him *come.*" "He durst not *come.*" "Let him *come.*"

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RULE XXIII. Adverbs qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

RULE XXIV. Prepositions govern the objective case; as, "We went *after* him." "He came *to* us."

RULE XXV. Nouns expressing time, and those expressing measure and distance, are often in the objective, with a preposition understood; as, "She boarded with us *a year*." "He run *a mile*."

RULE XXVI. Conjunctions connect nouns and pronouns of the same case, and also verbs; as, "My father *and* mother went to meeting *and* returned."

QUESTIONS, &c.

You will first repeat all the Rules in the Lesson.—In the examples under Rule fourteenth, how do you parse *her*, and *lesson*?—In the examples under the next Rule, how do you parse *race*, and *dream*?—In the examples under the next, how do you parse *question*, and *lesson*?—In the examples under Rule seventeenth, in what case is *Saviour*?—In what case is *God*?—In the examples under the next Rule, what governs *to instruct*?—What governs *to be regarded*?—"*To confess the truth, I was in fault.*"—How do you parse *to confess*, in this sentence; and by what Rule?—"*He conducted himself so well as to merit esteem?*"—How do you parse *to merit*; and by what Rule?—In the examples under Rule twenty-first, in what mode is *come*; and

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by what Rule?—In the next examples, what words govern *him*, and *us*?—In the last example, how do you parse the noun *mother*, and the verb *returned*?

REVIEW.

Of Rule XV.—In English, the nominative case, denoting the subject, usually goes before the verb; and the objective case, denoting the object, follows the verb transitive; and it is the order that determines the case in *nouns:* as, 'Alexander conquered the Persians.' But the *pronoun*, having a proper form for each of those cases, is sometimes, when it is in the objective case, placed before the verb; and, when it is in the nominative case, follows the object and verb: as, '*Whom* ye ignorantly worship, *him* declare I unto you.'

This position of the pronoun sometimes occasions its proper case and government to be neglected: as in the following instances: 'Who should I esteem more than the wise and good?' 'By the character of those who you choose for your friends, your own is likely to be formed.' 'Those are the persons who he thought true to his interest.' 'Who should I see the other day but my old friend?' 'Whosoever the court favors.' In all these places it ought to be *whom*, the relative being governed in the objective case by the verbs 'esteem, choose, thought,' &c. 'He, who under all proper circumstances, has the boldness to speak truth, choose for thy friend;' It should be '*him* who,' &c.

Part of a sentence, as well as a noun or pronoun, may be said to be in the objective case, or to be put objectively, governed by the active verb; as, 'We sometimes see *virtue in distress:* but we should consider *how great will be her ultimate reward.*' Sentences or phrases under these circumstances may be termed *objective sentences* or *phrases.*

Some writers, however, use certain neuter and intransitive verbs as if they were transitive, putting after them the objective case, agreeably to the French construction of reciprocal verbs; but this custom is so foreign to the

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idiom of the English tongue, that it ought not to be adopted or imitated. The following are some instances of this practice. '*Repenting* him of his design.' 'The king soon found reason *to repent* him of his provoking such dangerous enemies.' 'The popular lords did not fail to *enlarge* themselves on the subject.' 'The nearer his successes *approached* him to the throne.' 'Go *flee* thee away into the land of Judah.' 'I think it by no means a fit and decent thing to *vie* charities,' &c. 'They have spent their whole time and pains, to *agree* the sacred with the profane chronology.'

Transitive verbs are sometimes as improperly made intransitive: as, 'I must *premise* with three circumstances.' 'Those that think to *ingratiate with* him by calumniating me.' They should be, 'premise three circumstances;' 'ingratiate themselves with him.'

The neuter and intransitive verb is varied like the transitive; but having in some degree the nature of the passive, it admits, in many instances, the passive form, retaining still the neuter signification, chiefly in such verbs as signify some sort of motion, or change of place or condition: as, 'I am come; I was gone; I am grown; I was fallen.' The following examples, however, appear to be erroneous, in giving the intransitive verbs a passive form, instead of a transitive one. 'The rule of our holy religion, from which we *are* infinitely *swerved*.' 'The whole obligation of that law and covenant *was* also *ceased*.' 'Whose number *was* now *amounted* to three hundred.' 'This mareschal, upon some discontent, *was entered* into a conspiracy against his master.' 'At the end of a campaign, when half the men *are deserted* or killed.' They should be, '*have* swerved, *had* ceased,' &c.

Of Rule XVI.—Phrases, such as those contemplated in this Rule are of frequent occurrence; as, 'She lives a virtuous life; she sleeps her long sleep.' Indeed neuter verbs sometimes take an objective after them, of a signification different from their own; as, '*To walk the horse; to dance the child.*' In these cases, however, the verb may not improperly be regarded as active.

Of Rule XVII.—Examples of the application of this Rule are furnished by the best English writers. Phrases such as these 'She was asked the question; she was

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taught her lesson; they were offered a pardon; they were denied their request;' &c. are of frequent occurrence; and it seems better, after the example of the Latin, to provide for them by a special rule, than to condemn them as inaccuracies.

OF RULE XVIII.—The participle of an active verb governs the objective case, just like its verb; and the participle of a neuter or passive verb takes the same case after it, as that which next precedes it, when both nouns refer to the same thing.

The present participle, with the definite article *the* before it, becomes a substantive, and must have the preposition *of* after it: as, 'These are the rules of grammar, by the observing of which, you may avoid mistakes.' It would not be proper to say, 'by the observing which;' nor, 'by observing of which;' but the phrase, without either article or preposition, would be right; as, 'by observing which.' The article *a* or *an*, has the same effect: as, 'This ... betraying of the trust reposed in him.'

The following are a few examples of the violation of this rule. 'He was sent to prepare the way by preaching of repentance;' it ought to be, 'by *the* preaching of repentance;' or, 'by preaching repentance.' 'By the continual mortifying our corrupt affections;' it should be, 'by the continual mortifying *of*,' or, 'by continually mortifying our corrupt affections.' 'They laid out themselves towards *the* advancing and promoting the good of it;' 'towards advancing and promoting the good.' 'It is *an* overvaluing ourselves, to reduce every thing to the narrow measure of our capacities;' 'it is overvaluing ourselves,' or, '*an* overvaluing *of* ourselves.' 'Keeping of one day in seven,' &c. it ought to be, '*the* keeping *of* one day;' or, 'keeping one day.'

A phrase, in which the article precedes the present participle, and the possessive preposition follows it, will not, in every instance, convey the same meaning, as would be conveyed by the participle without the article and preposition. 'He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher,' is capable of a different sense from, 'He expressed the pleasure he had in hearing the philosopher.' When, therefore, we wish, for the

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sake of harmony or variety, to substitute one of these phraseologies for the other, we should previously consider, whether they are perfectly similar in the sentiments they convey.

We sometimes meet with expressions like the following: '*in forming of* his sentences, he was very exact;' '*From calling of* names, he proceeded to blows.' But this is incorrect language; for prepositions do not, like articles and pronouns, convert the participle itself into the nature of a substantive; as we have shown above in the phrase, 'By observing which.' And yet the participle with its adjuncts, may be considered as a substantive phrase in the objective case, governed by the preposition or verb, expressed or understood: as, 'By *promising much, and performing but little*, we become despicable.' 'He studied to avoid *expressing himself too severely*.'

As the perfect participle and the imperfect tense, are sometimes different in their form, care must be taken that they be not indiscriminately used. It is frequently said, 'He begun,' for 'he began;' 'He run,' for 'he ran;' 'He drunk,' for 'he drank;' the participle being here used instead of the imperfect tense: and much more frequently the imperfect tense instead of the participle: as, 'I had wrote,' for 'I had written;' 'I was chose,' for 'I was chosen:' 'I have eat,' for 'I have eaten.' 'His words were interwove with sighs;' '*were interwoven*.' 'He would have spoke;' '*spoken*.' 'He hath bore witness to his faithful servant;' '*borne*.' 'By this means he overrun his guide;' '*overran*.' 'The sun has rose;' '*risen*.' 'His constitution has been greatly shook, but his mind is too strong to be shook by such causes;' '*shaken*,' in both places. 'They were verses wrote on glass;' '*written*.' 'Philosophers have often mistook the source of true happiness:' it ought to be '*mistaken*.'

The participle ending in *ed*, is often improperly contracted, by changing *ed* into *t*: as, 'In good behaviour, he is not *surpast* by any pupil of the school.' She was much distrest.' They ought to be, '*surpassed*,' '*distressed*.'

'In the sentence, 'What do you think of my horse's running to-day?' it is implied that the horse did actually run. If it is said, 'What think you of my horse running

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to-day?' it is intended to ask, whether it be proper for my horse to run to-day. This distinction, though frequently disregarded, deserves attention: for it is obvious, that ambiguity may arise, from using the latter only of these phraseologies, to express both meanings.

The active participle is frequently introduced without an obvious reference to any noun or pronoun; as, 'Generally *speaking*, his conduct was very honorable:' '*Granting* this to be true, what is to be inferred from it?' 'It is scarcely possible to act otherwise, *considering* the frailty of human nature.' In these sentences, there is no noun expressed or implied, to which *speaking*, *granting*, and *considering*, can be referred. The most natural construction seems to be, that a pronoun is to be understood: as, '*We* considering the frailty of human nature,' &c.; '*I* granting this to be true,' &c.

The word *the* before the active participle, in the following sentences, and in all others of a similar construction, is improper and should be omitted: 'This style may be more properly called *the* talking upon paper than writing:' '*The* advising, or *the* attempting, to excite such disturbances, is unlawful:' '*The* taking from another what is his, without his knowledge or allowance, is called stealing.' They should be; 'May be called talking upon paper;' 'Advising or attempting to excite disturbances;' 'Taking from another what is his,' &c.

OF RULE XIX.—Government is the influence which one word has over another, in directing its case or mode In determining therefore, in any case, what word governs the infinitive mode, we must determine what word *causes* it to be in the infinitive. What previous word prevents the verb from having a nominative, and from assuming some other mode besides the infinitive? When this is ascertained, we may know what *governs* the verb, in the infinitive.

The infinitive mode has been improperly used in the following sentences: 'I am not like other men, *to envy* the talents I cannot reach.' It should be, '*who* envy the talents *they* cannot reach;' or, '*I do* not, like other men, *envy* the talents *I* cannot reach.' 'Grammarians have denied, or at least doubted, them *to be* genuine;' 'doubted *that they were* genuine.' 'That all our doings

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may be ordered by thy governance, *to do* always what is righteous in thy sight;' '*that we may* always *do*,' &c.

The sign *to*, signifying *in order to*, was anciently preceded by *for*: as, 'What went ye out *for to see*?' The word *for* before the infinitive, is now, in almost every case, obsolete. It is, however, still used, if the subject of the affirmation intervenes between the preposition and the verb; as, '*for* holy persons to be humble, is as hard, as *for* a prince *to submit* himself to be guided by tutors.'

Of Rule XX, XXI, XXII.—The infinitive mode absolute seems to supply the place of the conjunction *that* with the *potential* mode; as, '*To confess* the truth, I was in fault.' '*That I may confess* the truth, I was in fault.'

In all the instances of the application of Rule XXI, the *indicative* mode may be readily substituted; as, 'He went so far as *to promise* attendance. He went so far *that he promised* attendance.'

Sometimes, when the infinitive mode follows *as*, it is governed by another verb understood; as, 'He desired nothing so much as *to see* his friends;' that is, 'as he *desired* to see his friends.' In this manner, the infinitive mode is governed when it follows *than*; as, 'He desired nothing more *than to see* his friends;' that is, 'than he *desired to see* his friends.'

The verbs, which in the active form require the infinitive mode without the sign *to*, when used in the passive, always require the *to* to be inserted; as, 'He *was seen to go*; he *was heard to speak*;' &c.

Of Rule XXIII.—Adverbs, though they have no government of case, tense, &c. require an appropriate situation in the sentence; viz. for the most part, before adjectives, after verbs active or neuter, and frequently between the auxiliary and the verb: as, 'He made a *very sensible* discourse; he *spoke unaffectedly* and *forcibly*, and *was attentively heard* by the whole assembly.'

A few instances of erroneous positions of adverbs may serve to illustrate the rule. 'He must not expect to find study agreeable always;' '*always* agreeable.' 'We always find them ready when we want them;' 'we find them *always* ready,' &c. Dissertations on the

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prophecies which have remarkably been fulfilled;' 'which have been *remarkably*.' 'Instead of looking contemptuously down on the crooked in mind or body, we should look up thankfully to God, who hath made us better:' 'instead of looking down *contemptuously*, &c. we should *thankfully look up*,' &c. 'If thou art blessed naturally with a good memory, continually exercise it;' '*naturally blessed*,' &c. 'exercise it *continually*.'

Sometimes the adverb is placed with propriety before the verb, or at some distance after it; sometimes between the two auxiliaries; and sometimes after them both: as in the following examples. 'Vice *always* creeps by degrees, and *insensibly* twines around us those concealed fetters, by which we are at last *completely* bound.' 'He encouraged the English barons to carry their opposition *farther*.' 'They compelled him to declare that he would abjure the realm *for ever*;' instead of, 'to carry further their opposition;' and 'to abjure for ever the realm.' 'He has *generally* been reckoned an honest man:' 'The book may *always* be had at such a place;' in preference to 'has been generally:' and may 'be always.' 'These rules will be *clearly* understood, after they have been *diligently* studied,' are preferable to, 'These rules will *clearly* be understood, after they have *diligently* been studied.'

When adverbs are emphatical, they may introduce a sentence, and be separated from the word to which they belong: as, '*How completely* this most amiable of human virtues, *had taken possession* of his soul!' This position of the adverb is most frequent in interrogative and exclamatory phrases.

From the preceding remarks and examples, it appears that no exact and determinate rule can be given for the placing of adverbs, on all occasions. The general rule may be of considerable use: but the easy flow and perspicuity of the phrase, are the things which ought to be chiefly regarded.

The adverb *there* is often used as an expletive, or as a word that adds nothing to the sense: in which case it precedes the verb and nominative noun: as, 'There is a person at the door;' 'There are some thieves in the

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house :' which would be as well, or better, expressed by saying, 'A person is at the door ;' 'Some thieves are in the house.' Sometimes, it is made use of to give a small degree of emphasis to the sentence : as, '*There* was a man sent from God, whose name was John.' When it is applied in its strict sense, it principally follows the verb and the nominative case ; as, 'The man stands *there*.'

The adverb *never* generally precedes the verb ; as, 'I never was there ;' 'He never comes at a proper time.' When an auxiliary is used, it is placed indifferently, either before or after the adverb : as, 'He was never seen (or never was seen) to laugh from that time.' *Never* seems to be improperly used in the following passages. 'Ask me never so much dowry and gift.' 'If I make my hands never so clean.' 'Charm he never so wisely.' The word '*ever*' would be more suitable to the sense.—*Ever* is sometimes improperly used for *never :* as, 'I seldom or ever see him now.' It should be, 'I seldom or *never ;*' the speaker intending to say, 'that rarely, or rather at no time, does he see him now ;' not 'rarely,' or, 'at any time.'

In imitation of the French idiom, the adverb of place *where*, is often used instead of the pronoun relative and a preposition. 'They framed a protestation, *where*, they repeated all their former claims,' i. e. '*in which* they repeated.' 'The king was still determined to run forwards, in the same course *where* he was already, by his precipitate career, too fatally advanced ;' i. e. '*in which* he was.' But it would be better to avoid this mode of expression.

The adverbs *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*, imply a preposition ; for they signify, 'from this place, from that place, from what place.' It seems, therefore, strictly speaking, to be improper to join a preposition with them, because it is superfluous : as, 'This is the leviathan, from whence the wits of our age are said to borrow their weapons ;' 'an ancient author prophecies from hence.' But the origin of these words is little attended to, and the preposition *from* is so often used in construction with them, that the omission of it, in many cases, would seem stiff, and be disagreeable.

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The adverbs *here*, *there*, *where*, are often improperly applied to verbs signifying motion, instead of the adverbs *hither*, *thither*, *whither*: as, 'He came *here* hastily;' 'They rode *there* with speed.' They should be, 'He came *hither*:' 'They rode *thither*,' &c.

We have some examples of adverbs being used for substantives: 'In 1687, he erected it into a community of regulars, since *when*, it has begun to increase in those countries as a religious order;' i. e. 'since *which time*.' 'A little while and I shall not see you;' i. e. 'a *short time*.' 'It is worth their while;' i. e. 'it deserves their time and pains.' But this mode of expression rather suits familiar than grave style. The same may be said of the phrase, 'To do a thing *anyhow*;' i. e. 'in any manner;' or, '*somehow*;' i. e. 'in some manner.' 'Somehow, worthy as these people are, they are under the influence of prejudice.'

Such expressions as the following, though not destitute of authority, are very inelegant, and do not suit the idiom of our language; 'The *then* ministry,' for, 'the ministers of that time;' 'The above discourse,' for, 'the preceding discourse.'

Two negatives, in English, destroy one another, or are equivalent to an affirmative: as, '*Nor* did they *not* perceive him;' that is, 'they did perceive him.' 'His language, though inelegant, is *not ungrammatical*;' that is, 'it is grammatical.'

It is better to express an affirmation, by a regular affirmative, than by two separate negatives, as in the former sentence: but when one of the negatives is joined to another word, as in the latter sentence, the two negatives form a pleasing and delicate variety of expression.

Some writers have improperly employed two negatives instead of one: as in the following instances: 'I never did repent of doing good, nor shall not now;' '*nor shall I now*.' 'Never no imitator grew up to this author:' *never did any*,' &c. 'I cannot by no means allow him what his argument must prove;' 'I cannot by *any* means,' &c. or, 'I *can by no means*.' 'Nor let no comforter approach me;' 'Nor let *any* comforter,' &c. 'Nor is danger ever apprehended in such a government, no

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more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes:' it should be '*any more*.' 'Ariosto, Tasso, Galileo, *no more* than Raphael, were *not* born in Republics.' It would be better thus, 'Neither Ariosto, Tasso, nor Galileo, any more than Raphael, was born in a republic.'

Of Rule XXIV.—The following are examples of the nominative case being used instead of the objective. 'Who servest thou under?' 'Who do you speak to?' 'We are still much at a loss who civil power belongs to.' 'Who do you ask for?' 'Associate not with those who none can speak well of.' In all these places it ought to be '*whom*.'

The prepositions *to* and *for* are often understood, chiefly before the pronouns: as, 'Give me the book;' 'Get me some paper;' that is, '*to* me;' '*for* me.' 'Woe is me;' i. e. '*to* me.' 'He was banished England;' i. e. '*from* England.'

The preposition is often separated from the relative which it governs: as, 'Whom will you give it to?' instead of, 'To *whom* will you give it?' 'He is an author whom I am much delighted with;' 'The world is too polite to shock their authors with a truth, which generally their booksellers are the first that inform them of.' This is an idiom to which our language is strongly inclined; it prevails in common conversation, and suits very well with the familiar style in writing: but the placing of the preposition before the relative, is more graceful, as well as more perspicuous, and agrees much better with the solemn and elevated style.

Some writers separate the preposition from the noun or pronoun which it governs, in order to connect different prepositions with the same word: as, 'To suppose the zodiac and planets to be efficient *of*, and antecedent *to*, themselves.' This construction, whether in the familiar or the solemn style, is always inelegant, and should generally be avoided. In forms of law, and the like, where fulness and exactness of expression must take place of every other consideration, it may be admitted.

Different relations, and different senses, must be expressed by different prepositions, though in conjunction with the same verb or adjective. Thus we say, 'to con-

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verse *with* a person, *upon* a subject *in* a house,' &c. We also say, 'We are disappointed *of* a thing,' when we cannot get it, 'and disappointed *in* it,' when we have it, and find it does not answer our expectations. But two different prepositions must be improper in the same construction, and in the same sentence; as, 'The combat *between* thirty French, *against* twenty English.'

In some cases it is difficult to say, to which of two prepositions the preference is to be given, as both are used promiscuously, and custom has not decided in favor of either of them. We say, 'Expert at,' and 'expert in a thing.' 'Expert in finding a remedy for his mistakes;' 'Expert in deception.'

When prepositions are subjoined to nouns, they are generally the same that are subjoined to the verbs from which the nouns are derived: as, 'A compliance *with*,' 'to comply *with*;' 'A disposition *to* tyranny,' 'disposed *to* tyrannise.'

Dr. Priestly observes, that many writers affect to subjoin to any word, the preposition with which it is compounded, or the idea of which it implies; in order to point out the relation of the words, in a more distinct and definite manner, and to avoid the more indeterminate prepositions *of* and *to:* but general practice, and the idiom of the English tongue, seem to oppose the innovation. Thus many writers say, 'Averse *from* a thing;' 'The abhorrence *against* all other sects.' But other writers say, 'Averse *to* it;' which seems more truly English: 'Averse *to* any advice.' *Swift.* An attention to latent metaphor may be pleaded in favor of the former example: and this is a rule of general use, in directing what preposition to subjoin to a word. Thus we say, 'devolve *upon* a thing:' 'founded *on* natural resemblance.' But this rule would sometimes mislead us, particularly where the figure has become nearly evanescent.

'The words *averse* and *aversion* (says Dr. Campbell) are more properly construed with *to* than with *from*.'

As an accurate and appropriate use of the preposition is of great importance, we shall select a considerable number of examples of impropriety, in the application of this part of speech.

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First—With respect to the preposition OF.

'He found the greatest difficulty of writing;' '*in* writing.'

'It might have given me a greater taste of its antiquities.' A taste *of* a thing implies actual enjoyment of it; but a taste *for* it, implies only a capacity of enjoyment.

'This had much greater share of inciting him, than any regard after his father's commands;' 'share *in* inciting,' and 'regard *to* his father's,' &c.

Second—With respect to the prepositions TO and FOR.

'You have bestowed your favors to the most deserving persons;' '*upon* the most deserving,' &c.

'He accused the ministers for betraying the Dutch;' '*of* having betrayed.'

'His abhorrence to that superstitious figure;' '*of* that,' &c.

'A great change to the better;' '*for* the better,' &c.

'Your prejudice to my cause;' '*against*.'

'The English were very different people then to what they are at present;' '*from* what,' &c,

'In compliance to the declaration;' '*with*,' &c.

'It is more than they thought for;' 'thought *of*.'

'There is no need for it;' '*of* it.'

'No discouragement for the authors to proceed;' '*to* the authors,' &c.

'It was perfectly in compliance to some persons;' '*with* some persons.'

Third—With respect to the prepositions WITH and UPON.

'Reconciling himself with the king.'

'Those things which have the greatest resemblance with each other, frequently differ the most.'

'That such rejection should be consonant with our common nature.'

'The history of Peter is agreeable with the sacred texts.' In all the above instances, it should be, '*to*,' instead of '*with*.'

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'It is a use that perhaps I should not have thought on ;' 'thought *of*.'

'A greater quantity may be taken from the heap, without making any sensible alteration upon it ;' '*in* it.'

'Intrusted to persons on whom the parliament could confide ;' '*in* whom.'

Fourth—With respect to the prepositions IN, FROM, &c.

'They should be informed in some parts of his character ;' '*about*,' or, '*concerning*.'

'Could he have profited from repeated experiences ;' '*by*.' *From* seems to be superfluous after *forbear :* as, 'He could not forbear from appointing the pope,' &c.

'The character which we may now value ourselves by drawing ;' '*upon* drawing.'

'Neither of them shall make me swerve out of the path ;' '*from* the path.'

'Ye blind guides, which strain *at* a gnat, and swallow a camel ;' it ought to be 'which strain *out* a gnat,' or, 'take a gnat out of the liquor by straining it.' The impropriety of the preposition has wholly destroyed the meaning of the phrase.

The verb *to found*, when used literally, is more properly followed by the preposition *on :* as, 'The house was *founded on* a rock.' But in the metaphorical application, it is often better with *in ;* as in this sentence, 'They maintained, that dominion is *founded in* grace.' Both the sentences would be badly expressed, if these prepositions were transposed ; though there are perhaps cases in which either of them would be good.

The preposition *among* generally implies a number of things. It cannot be properly used in conjunction with the word *every*, which is in the singular number : as, 'Which is found among every species of liberty ;' 'The opinion seems to gain ground among every body ;' '*with*.'

The preposition *to* is made use of before nouns of place, when they follow verbs and participles of motion : as, 'I went *to* London ;' 'I am going *to* town.' But the preposition *at* is generally used after the neuter verb *to be :* as, 'I have been *at* London ;' 'I was *at* the

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place appointed;' 'I shall be *at* Paris.' We likewise say: 'He touched, arrived *at* any place.' The preposition *in* is set before countries, cities, and large towns: 'He lives in France, in London, or in Birmingham.' But before villages, single houses, and cities which are in distant countries, *at* is used: as, 'He lives at Hackney;' 'He resides at Montpelier.' It is a matter of indifference with respect to the pronoun *one another*, whether the preposition *of* be placed between the two parts of it, or before them both. We may say, 'They were jealous of one another;' or, 'They were jealous one of another:' but perhaps the former is better.

(Participles are frequently used as prepositions) as, excepting, respecting, touching, concerning.) 'They were all in fault *except* or *excepting* him.'

Of Rule XXV.—In most of the phrases intended to be parsed by this rule, a preposition may be supplied; but not elegantly or conveniently in all of them. 'The well is twenty *feet* deep.' 'The mountain is three *miles* high.' 'The child is three *years* old.' 'We have travelled forty *miles*,' &c. It is thought to be better, in imitation of the Latin, to parse these and similar phrases by a *special rule*, than to attempt supplying a preposition.

Of Rule XXVI.—It is implied in this rule, that though nouns and pronouns, when connected, must always be in the same case, (*connected verbs need not always be in the same mode and tense.*) Hundreds of instances might be adduced, in which such verbs are not in the same mode and tense. The imperative mode, and the infinitive, are not indeed connected with any other; and perhaps not the subjunctive; but the *indicative* and the *potential* modes, are very often connected—and connected too in *different tenses*; as, 'He *would not come*, but *sent* his brother.' 'I *love* you, and *have provided* for your education.' 'We *want* you here, and *shall send* for you.'

Questions on the Review.

Is part of a sentence ever the object of an active verb?—Does the neuter verb admit of the passive form?—Do neuter verbs in any case take an objective after them?—When the definite article precedes the present participle, what ought to follow it?—What is government?—How

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can we determine what governs a verb in the infinitive mode?—Are adverbs ever used as substantives?—Mention an instance?—What is the effect of two negatives in English?—Are participles ever used as prepositions?—Are connected verbs always in the same mode and tense?

LESSON XXIV.

In parsing a word, the first thing to be ascertained is, the part of speech. This should be done, if possible, by considering the sense and connexion of the word, and by comparing it with those definitions and distinguishing marks, which have been given. The part of speech being determined—if it is an *article*, let it be told which kind of article—and to what noun it belongs—if it is a *noun*, it should be told whether it is common or proper; its number, person, gender, and case, should be given; also, to what it is nominative, or by what it is governed, according as its case may be. The personal and relative *pronouns* should be parsed in the same way, with this addition in regard to the relative, that its antecedent should be pointed out. If the word under consideration is an *adjective pronoun*, let it be told what kind of one; or if an *adjective*, what its degree of comparison; and in respect to both, as well as the *participle*, it should be determined to what noun or pronoun they belong. If the word in question is a *verb*, it must be ascertained whether it is regular or irregular, active, passive, or neuter; the mode,

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tense, number, and person, must be given; and it must be told with what noun or pronoun it agrees, as its nominative. If the word is an *adverb*, show what it qualifies; or if a *preposition*, the words between which it shows a relation should be pointed out; or, if a *conjunction*, the kind should be mentioned, as also the words, or parts of a sentence, which it connects. The *rules* should all be given, until both the language and the application of them are perfectly familiar; after which they may be omitted.

QUESTIONS.

In parsing a word, what is first to be ascertained?—How should this be done?—What is to be told of the article?—What of the noun?—How should the personal and relative pronouns be parsed?—What is to be told, in respect to the adjective pronoun, the adjective, and participle?—What must be done in parsing the verb?—What must be told in parsing the adverb?—What, in parsing the preposition?—What, in parsing the conjunction?—How long should the Rules be given?—You may now parse, if you can, the following easy sentences: "*The boy plays. He is wicked. His heart has been hard. You behave yourself properly. Come to me, and read. Oh! what are you doing?*"

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SPECIMEN OF SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

Vice degrades us.

Vice is a common noun, of the neuter gender, the third person, in the singular number, and the nominative case to degrades. *Degrades* is a regular verb active, indicative mode, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative 'vice,' according to Rule II. which says; (here repeat the rule.) *Us* is a personal pronoun, first person plural, in the objective case, and governed by the active verb 'degrades,' agreeably to Rule XV. which says, &c.

He who lives virtuously prepares for all events.

He is a personal pronoun of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative to prepares. *Who* is a relative pronoun, which has for its antecedent, 'he,' with which it agrees in gender and number and person, according to Rule X. which says, &c.; it is also nominative to the verb *lives*, according to Rule XI. which says, &c. *Lives* is a regular verb neuter, indicative mode, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative, 'who,' according to Rule II. which says, &c. *Virtuously* is an adverb qualifying lives. *Prepares* is a regular verb neuter, indicative mode, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative, 'he.' *For* is a preposition. *All* is an adjective pronoun, of the indefinite kind, and belongs to its substantive, 'events,' according to Rule XIII. which says, &c. *Events* is a common noun, of the neuter gender, the third person, in the plural number, and the objective case, governed by the preposition 'for,' according to Rule XXIV. which says, &c.

If folly entice thee, reject its allurements.

If is a copulative conjunction. *Folly* is a common noun of the third person, in the singular number, and the nominative case to entice. *Entice* is a regular verb active, subjunctive mode, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative 'folly,' according to Rule II. which says, &c. *Thee* is a personal pronoun, of the second person singular, in the objective case, govern-

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ed by the active verb 'entice,' agreeably to Rule XV. which says, &c. *Reject* is a regular active verb, imperative mode, second person singular, and agrees with its nominative case, 'thou,' implied. *Its* is a personal pronoun, third person, singular number, of the neuter gender, and in the possessive case, governed by allurements, according to Rule XIV. which says, &c. *Allurements* is a common noun, of the neuter gender, the third person, in the plural number, and the objective case, governed by the verb 'reject,' according to Rule XV. which says, &c.

LESSON XXV.

ONE of the greatest difficulties in parsing arises from the use of the same words in different senses, and consequently as forming different parts of speech. Of the words thus used, the following are among the least obvious: *that*, *as*, *either*, *but*, *for*, *yet*, *both*.

That is a relative pronoun, when *who* or *which* can be substituted for it and make sense. It is a demonstrative adjective pronoun when it is joined with a noun, and used for pointing out any individual person or thing; as, "*that* man; *that* woman." In all cases except these two, it is a conjunction.

As, is a relative pronoun when it follows *such*; when it has the sense of *so*, it is an adverb; in all other cases; it is a conjunction.

Either, is a conjunction when it corresponds to *or*; as, "I shall not do *either* the one, *or* the other." In other cases, it is a distributive adjective pronoun.

But, when it means the same as *except*, is a preposition; when it has the sense of *only*, it

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is an adverb; in other cases, it is a conjunction.

For, when it means the same as *because*, is a conjunction; in other cases, it is a preposition.

Yet, when it corresponds to *though*, is a conjunction; in other cases, it is an adverb.

Both, when it corresponds to *and*, is a conjunction; in other cases, it is an adjective, and is often used as a noun.

QUESTIONS.

When is *that* a relative pronoun?—When a demonstrative adjective pronoun?—When a conjunction?—"*I know that he is that man that committed the murder.*"—Which *that* is the relative in this sentence?—Which the demonstrative?—Which the conjunction?—When is *as* a relative pronoun?—When is it an adverb?—When a conjunction?—"*This is such a sight as I never saw.*" "*I did as well as I could.*"—The word *as*, in these sentences, is used three times.—Which is the relative?—Which the adverb?—Which the conjunction?—When is *either* a conjunction?—When is it a distributive adjective pronoun?—"*Either man of us can go either the one way or the other.*"—Which is the distributive, in this sentence?—Which is the conjunction?—When is *but* a preposition?—When is it an adverb?—When a conjunction?—"*All of us but two, were sick.*" "*This is but doing what we ought.*" "*He spake, but I heard not.*"—Which *but* is

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the preposition in these sentences?—Which is the adverb?—Which the conjunction?—When is *for* a conjunction; and when a preposition?—"*I did the work for him: For what less than this could I do?*"—Which *for* is here the conjunction; and which the preposition?--When is *yet* a conjunction; and when an adverb?—"*Though I loved him, yet he forsook me.*" "*Your work is not yet done.*"—Which *yet* is the conjunction; and which the adverb, in these sentences?—When is *both* a conjunction; and when an adjective?—"*Both men are guilty.*" "*He is loved, both on his mother's account, and his own.*"—In these sentences, which *both* is the adjective; and which the conjunction?

The student, having made himself acquainted with the preceding Lessons, may commence parsing easy sentences.

REVIEW.

The different parts of speech are used so promiscuously, that they cannot with certainty be determined but by particular attention to the connexion and the sense. The same word is used sometimes as one part of speech, and sometimes as another. 'The *cold* is extreme. The earth is covered with *green*.' Here *cold* and *green*, which are properly adjectives, are used as nouns.—'A *summer* day; a *winter* school; a *morning* prayer.' Here *summer*, *winter*, and *morning*, which are properly nouns, are used as adjectives.—'I *love* my Maker.' 'God is *love*.' Here *love* is used both as a noun and a verb.—'The summer is *warm*; fires *warm* the earth.' Here *warm* is used both as a verb and an adjective.—'*Yesterday* is past and gone; *to-morrow* may never come.' 'I was at Worcester *yesterday*; I shall go to Boston *to-morrow*.' In the former of these sentences, *yesterday* and *to-morrow* are

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nouns; in the latter, they are adverbs.—'I love you *much*. *Much* good has been done. He has accomplished *much* in behalf of others.' In these sentences, much is used, first as an adverb; next as an adjective; and last as a noun.—'I went *after* him, *after* I had seen his father; and soon *after* I found him.' *After* is here, first a preposition, then a connective, and then an adverb.—There are various other words, too numerous to be particularized, which, used in different connexions, constitute different parts of speech. The object of these remarks is to show, not that distinctions in parts of speech are of no consequence, but that the only infallible criterion by which to judge of them, is their signification, and the connexion and manner in which they are used.

Questions on the Review.

Are adjectives ever used as nouns?—Are nouns ever used as adjectives?—Mention some instances.—Mention an instance in which the same word is a noun and a verb.—A verb and an adjective.—Mention instances in which the same words are nouns and adverbs.—What is the only infallible criterion, by which to ascertain the different parts of speech?

LESSON XXVI.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

In your whole behaviour, be humble and obliging.

Virtue is the universal charm.

True politeness has its seat in the heart.

We should endeavour to please, rather than to shine and dazzle.

Opportunities occur daily for strengthening in ourselves the habits of virtue.

Compassion prompts us to relieve the wants of others.

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A good mind is unwilling to give pain to either man or beast.

Peevishness and passion often produce, from trifles, the most serious mischiefs.

Discontent often nourishes passions, equally malignant in the cottage and in the palace.

A great proportion of human evils is created by ourselves.

A passion for revenge, has always been considered as the mark of a little and mean mind.

If greatness flatters our vanity, it multiplies our dangers.

To our own failings we are commonly blind.

The friendships of young persons are often founded on capricious likings.

In your youthful amusements let no unfairness be found.

Engrave on your minds this sacred rule:

"Do unto others, as you wish that they should do unto you."

Truth and candor possess a powerful charm. they bespeak universal favor.

After the first departure from sincerity, it is seldom in our power to stop: one artifice generally leads on to another.

Temper the vivacity of youth with a proper mixture of serious thought.

The spirit of true religion is social, kind, and cheerful.

Let no compliance with the intemperate mirth of others, ever betray you into profane sallies.

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In preparing for another world, we must not neglect the duties of this life.

The manner in which we employ our present time, may decide our future happiness or misery.

Happiness does not grow up of its own accord: it is the fruit of long cultivation, and the acquisition of labor and care.

A plain understanding is often joined with great worth.

The brightest parts are sometimes found without virtue or honor.

How feeble are the attractions of the fairest form, when nothing within corresponds to them.

Piety and virtue are particularly graceful and becoming in youth.

Can we, untouched by gratitude, view that profusion of good, which the Divine Hand pours around us?

There is nothing in human life more amiable and respectable, than the character of a truly humble and benevolent man.

What feelings are more uneasy and painful, than the workings of sour and angry passions?

No man can be active in disquieting others, who does not, at the same time, disquiet himself.

A life of pleasure and dissipation is an enemy to health, fortune, and character.

To correct the spirit of discontent, let us consider how little we deserve, and how much we enjoy.

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As far as happiness is to be found on earth, we must look for it, not in the world, or the things of the world; but within ourselves, in our temper, and in our heart.

Though bad men attempt to turn virtue into ridicule, they honor it at the bottom of their hearts.

Of what small moment to our real happiness, are many of those injuries which draw forth our resentment!

In the moments of eager contention, every thing is magnified and distorted in its appearance.

Multitudes in the most obscure stations, are not less eager in their petty broils, nor less tormented by their passions, than if princely honors were the prize for which they contended.

The smooth stream, the serene atmosphere, the mild zephyr, are the proper emblems of a gentle temper, and a peaceful life. Among the sons of strife all is loud and tempestuous.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

The following Exercises, taken chiefly from the collection by Mr. Murray, are arranged according to the rules of this Grammar. Perhaps the best mode of correcting them will be to take them as lessons in parsing.

Exercises under Rule 1.

They slew Varus, he that was mentioned before.

I saw John and his sister, they who came to your house

We must respect the good and the wise, they who endeavoured to enlighten us, and make us better.

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I sent the book to my brother's house, him whom you saw here.

My two friends gave me this present, them that we visited yesterday.

Exercises on Rule II.

Disappointment sinks the heart of man; but the renewal of hope gives consolation.

The smiles that encourage severity of judgment, hides malice and insincerity.

He dare not act contrary to his instructions.

Fifty pounds of wheat contains forty pounds of flour.

The mechanism of clocks and watches, were totally unknown a few centuries ago.

The number of inhabitants in Great Britain and Ireland, do not exceed sixteen millions.

Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons.

A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.

So much both of ability and merit are seldom found.

In the conduct of Parmenio, a mixture of wisdom and folly were very conspicuous.

He is an author of more credit than Plutarch, or any other, that write lives too hastily.

The inquisitive and curious is generally talkative.

Great pains has been taken to reconcile the parties.

I am sorry to say it, but there was more equivocators than one.

The sincere is always esteemed.

Has the goods been sold to advantage? and did thou embrace the proper season?

There is many occasions in life, in which silence and simplicity is true wisdom.

The generous never recounts minutely the actions they have done; nor the prudent those they will do.

He need not proceed in such haste.

The business that related to ecclesiastical meetings, matters and persons, were to be ordered according to the king's direction.

In him were happily blended true dignity with softness of manners.

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The support of so many of his relations, was a heavy tax upon his industry; but thou knows he paid it cheerfully.

What avails the best sentiments, if persons do not live suitably to them?

Reconciliation was offered, on conditions as moderate as was consistent with a permanent union.

Not one of them whom thou sees clothed in purple, are completely happy.

And the fame of this person, and of his wonderful actions, were diffused throughout the country.

The variety of the productions of genius, like that of the operations of nature, are without limit.

> In vain our flocks and fields increase our store,
> When our abundance makes us wish for more.

Thou should love thy neighbour as sincerely as thou loves thyself.

Has thou no better reason for censuring thy friend and companion?

Thou who art the Author and bestower of life, can doubtless restore it also: but whether thou will please to restore it, or not, that thou only knows.

> O thou my voice inspire,
> Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.
>
> Accept these grateful tears: for thee they flow;
> For thee that ever felt another's wo.
>
> Just to thy word, in ev'ry thought sincere;
> Who knew no wish but what the world might hear.

Examples adapted to the Review under Rule II.

If the privileges to which he has an undoubted right, and he has long enjoyed, should now be wrested from him, would be flagrant injustice.

These curiosities we have imported from China, and are similar to those which were some time ago brought from Africa.

> Will martial flames forever fire thy mind,
> And never, never be to Heaven resigned?

Two substantives, when they come together, and do not signify the same thing, the former must be in the genitive case.

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Virtue, however it may be neglected for a time, men are so constituted as ultimately to acknowledge and respect genuine merit.

Exercises on Rule III.

To do unto all men, as we would, that they, in similar circumstances, should do unto us, constitute the great principle of virtue.

From a fear of the world's censure, to be ashamed of the practice of precepts, which the heart approves and embraces, mark a feeble and imperfect character.

The erroneous opinions which we form concerning happiness and misery, gives rise to all the mistaken and dangerous passions that embroils our life.

To live soberly, righteously, and piously, are required of all men.

That it is our duty to promote the purity of our minds and bodies, to be just and kind to our fellow creatures, and to be pious and faithful to Him that made us, admit not of any doubt in a rational and well-informed mind.

To be of a pure and humble mind, to exercise benevolence towards others, to cultivate piety towards God, is the sure means of becoming peaceful and happy.

It is an important truth, that religion, vital religion, the religion of the heart, are the most powerful auxiliaries of reason, in waging war with the passions, and promoting that sweet composure which constitute the peace of God.

The possession of our senses entire, of our limbs uninjured, of our sound understanding, of friends and companions, are often overlooked; though it would be the ultimate wish of many, who, as far as we can judge, deserves it as much as ourselves.

All that make a figure on the great theatre of the world, the employments of the busy, the enterprises of the ambitious, and the exploits of the warlike; the virtues which forms the happiness, and the crimes which occasions the misery of mankind; originates in that silent and secret recess of thought, which are hidden from every human eye.

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Exercises on Rule V.

Solomon was of this mind; and I have no doubt he made as wise and true proverbs, as any body has done since; him only excepted, who was a much greater and wiser man than Solomon.

——————Him destroy'd,
Or won to what may work his utter loss,
All this will soon follow.

Whose gay top
Shall tremble, him descending.

Exercises on Rules VI. *and* VII.

Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices.

Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

In unity consists the welfare and security of every society.

Time and tide waits for no man.

His politeness and good disposition was, on failure of their effect, entirely changed.

Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains.

Humility and knowledge, with poor apparel, excels pride and ignorance under costly attire.

The planetary system, boundless space, and the immense ocean, affects the mind with sensations of astonishment.

Humility and love, whatever obscurities may involve religious tenets, constitutes the essence of true religion.

Religion and virtue, our best support and highest honor, confers on the mind principles of noble independence.

What signifies the counsel and care of preceptors, when youth think they have no need of assistance?

Man's happiness, or misery, are, in a great measure, put into his own hands.

Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which move merely as they are moved.

Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life; for they are, perhaps, to be your own lot.

Speaking impatiently to servants, or anything that betrays unkindness or ill-humor, are certainly criminal.

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There are many faults in spelling, which neither analogy nor pronunciation justify.

When sickness, infirmity or reverse of fortune, affect us, the sincerity of friendship is proved.

Let it be remembered, that it is not the uttering, or the nearing of certain words, that constitute the worship of the Almighty.

A tart reply, a propeness to rebuke, or a captious and contradictious spirit, are capable of embittering domestic life, and of setting friends at variance.

Examples adapted to the Review under these Rules.

Much does human pride and self-complacency require correction.

Luxurious living, and high pleasures, begets a languor and satiety that destroys all enjoyment.

Pride and self-sufficiency stifle sentiments of dependence on our Creator: levity and attachment to worldly pleasures, destroy the sense of gratitude to him.

Every man and woman were numbered.

Good order in our affairs, not mean savings, produces great profits.

The following treatise, together with those that accompany it, were written, many years ago, for my own private satisfaction.

That great senator, in concert with several other eminent persons, were the projectors of the revolution.

The religion of these people, as well as their customs and manners, were strangely misrepresented.

Virtue, joined to knowledge and wealth, confer great influence and respectability. But knowledge, with wealth united, if virtue is wanting, have a very limited influence, and are often despised.

That superficial scholar and critic, like some renowned critics of our own, have furnished most decisive proofs, that they knew not the characters of the Hebrew language.

The buildings of the institution have been enlarged; the expense of which, added to the increased price of provisions, render it necessary to advance the terms of admission.

One, added to nineteen, make twenty.

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What black despair, what horror, fills the mind!

Thou, and the gardener, and the huntsman, must share the blame of this business amongst them.

My sister and I, as well as my brother, are daily employed in their respective occupations.

Either thou or I art greatly mistaken, in our judgment on this subject.

I or thou am the person who must undertake the business proposed.

Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, was present at the transaction.

Some part of the ship and cargo were recovered; but neither the sailors nor the captain, was saved.

Whether one person or more was concerned in the business, does not yet appear.

The cares of this life, or the deceitfulness of riches, has choked the seeds of virtue in many a promising mind

Exercises on Rule VIII.

The people rejoices in that which should give it sorrow.

The flock, and not the fleece, are, or ought to be, the object of the shepherd's care.

The court have just ended, after having sat through the trial of a very long cause.

The crowd were so great, that the judges with difficulty made their way through them.

The corporation of York consist of a mayor, aldermen, and a common council.

The British parliament are composed of king, lords, and commons.

When the nation complain, the rulers should listen to their voice.

In the days of youth, the multitude eagerly pursues pleasures as its chief good.

The church have no power to inflict corporal punishment.

The fleet were seen sailing up the channel.

The regiment consist of a thousand men.

The meeting have established several salutary regulations.

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The council was not unanimous, and it separated without coming to any determination.

The fleet is all arrived and moored in safety.

This people draweth near to me with their mouth, and honoreth me with their lips, but their heart is far from me.

The committee was divided in its sentiments, and it has referred the business to the general meeting.

The committee were very full when this point was decided; and their judgment has not been called in question.

Why do this generation wish for greater evidence, when so much is already given?

The remnant of the people were persecuted with great severity.

Never were any people so much infatuated as the Jewish nation.

The shoal of herrings were of an immense extent.

No society are chargeable with the disapproved misconduct of particular members.

Exercises on Rule IX.

Well may you be afraid; it is him indeed.

I would act the same part if I were him, or in his situation.

Search the Scriptures; for in them ye think ye have eternal life: and they are them which testify of me.

Be composed: it is me: you have no cause for fear.

I cannot tell who has befriended me, unless it is him from whom I have received many benefits.

I know not whether it were them who conducted the business; but I am certain it was not him.

He so much resembled my brother, that, at first sight, I took it to be he.

After all their professions, is it possible to be them?

It could not have been her, for she always behaves discreetly.

If it was not him, who do you imagine it to have been?

Who do you think him to be!

Whom do the people say that we are?

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Exercises on Rule X.

The exercise of reason appears as little in these sportsmen, as in the beasts whom they sometimes hunt, and by whom they are sometimes hunted.

They which seek wisdom will certainly find her.

The wheel killed another man, which is the sixth which have lost their lives, by this means.

What is the reason that our language is less refined than those of Italy, Spain, or France?

Thou who has been a witness to the fact, can give an account of it.

In religious concerns, or what is conceived to be such, every man must stand or fall by the decision of the Great Judge.

Something like what have been here premised, are the conjectures of Dryden.

> Thou great First Cause, least understood!
> Who all my sense confin'd
> To know but this, that thou art good,
> And that myself am blind:
> Yet gave me in this dark estate, &c.
>
> What art thou, speak, that, on designs unknown,
> While others sleep, thus range the camp alone?

Examples adapted to the Review under Rule X.

Moses was the meekest man whom we read of in the Old Testament.

Humility is one of the most amiable virtues which we can possess.

They are the same persons who assisted us yesterday.

The men and things which he has studied have not improved his morals.

Howsoever beautiful they appear, they have no real merit.

In whatsoever light we view him, his conduct will bear inspection.

On whichsoever side they are contemplated, they appear to advantage.

However much he might despise the maxims of the king's administration, he kept a total silence on that subject.

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He would not be persuaded but what I was greatly in fault.

These commendations of his children, appear to have been made in somewhat an injudicious manner.

He instructed and fed the crowds who surrounded him.

Sidney was one of the wisest and most active governors, which Ireland have enjoyed for several years.

He was the ablest minister which James ever possessed.

The court, who gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary.

I am happy in the friend which I have long proved.

The child whom we have just seen, is wholesomely fed, and not injured by bandages or clothing.

He is like a beast of prey, who destroys without pity.

Having once disgusted him, he could never regain the favor of Nero, who was indeed another name for cruelty.

Flattery, whose nature is to deceive and betray, should be avoided as the poisonous adder.

Who of those men came to his assistance?

The king dismissed his minister without any inquiry; who had never before committed so unjust an action.

There are millions of people in the empire of China, whose support is derived almost entirely from rice.

Exercises on Rule XI.

We are dependent upon each other's assistance; whom is there that can subsist by himself?

If he will not hear his best friend, whom shall be sent to admonish him?

They who much is given to, will have much to answer for.

It is not to be expected that they, whom in early life, have been dark and deceitful, should afterwards become fair and ingenuous.

They who have labored to make us wise and good, are the persons who we ought to love and respect, and who we ought to be grateful to.

The persons, who conscience and virtue support, may smile at the caprices of fortune.

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From the character of those who you associate with, your own will be estimated.

That is the student who I gave the book to, and whom, I am persuaded, deserves it.

Of whom were the articles bought? Of a mercer; he who resides near the Mansion House.

Was any person besides the mercer present? Yes, both him and the clerk.

Who was the money paid to? To the mercer and his clerk.

Who counted it? Both the clerk and him.

I acknowledge that I am the teacher, who adopt that sentiment, and maintains the propriety of such measures.

Thou art a friend that hast often relieved me, and that has not deserted me now in the time of peculiar need.

I am the man who approves of wholesome discipline, and who recommend it to others; but I am not a person who promotes useless severity, or who object to mild and generous treatment.

I perceive that thou art a pupil, who possesses bright parts, but who has cultivated them but little.

Thou art he who breathest on the earth with the breath of spring, and who covereth it with verdure and beauty.

I am the Lord thy God, who teacheth thee to profit, and who lead thee by the way thou shouldst go.

Thou art the Lord who did choose Abraham, and broughtest him forth out of Ur of the Chaldees.

Exercises on Rule XII.

The fire, air, the earth, and the water, are four elements of the philosophers.

Reason was given to a man to control his passions.

We have within us an intelligent principle, distinct from body and from matter.

A man is the noblest work of creation.

Wisest and best men sometimes commit errors.

Beware of drunkenness; it impairs understanding; wastes an estate; destroys a reputation; consumes the

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body; and renders the man of the brightest parts the common jest of the meanest clown.

He is a much better writer than a reader.

The king has conferred on him the title of a duke.

There are some evils of life, which equally affect prince and people.

We must act our part with a constancy, though reward of our constancy be distant.

We are placed here under a trial of our virtue.

The virtues like his are not easily acquired. Such qualities honor the nature of a man.

Purity has its seat in the heart; but extends its influence over so much of outward conduct, as to form the great and material part of a character.

The profligate man is seldom or never found to be the good husband, the good father, or the beneficent neighbour.

True charity is not the meteor, which occasionally glares; but the luminary, which in its orderly and regular course, dispenses benignant influence.

Examples adapted to the Review under Rule XII.

He has been much censured for conducting himself with a little attention to his business.

So bold a breach of order, called for little severity in punishing the offender.

His error was accompanied with so little contrition and candid acknowledgement, that he found a few persons to intercede for him.

There were so many mitigating circumstances attending his misconduct, particularly that of his open confession, that he found new friends who were disposed to interest themselves in his favor.

As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him.

The fear of shame, and desire of approbation, prevent many bad actions.

In this business he was influenced by a just and generous principle.

He was fired with a desire of doing something, though he knew not yet, with distinctness, either end or means.

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At worst, I could but incur a gentle reprimand.

At best his gift was a poor offering, when we consider his estate.

Examples adapted to the Review under Rule XIII.

She reads proper, writes very neat, and composes accurate.

He was extreme prodigal, and his property is now near exhausted.

They generally succeeded; for they lived conformable to the rules of prudence.

We may reason very clear, and exceeding strong, without knowing that there is such a thing as a syllogism.

He had many virtues, and was exceeding beloved.

The amputation was exceeding well performed, and saved the patient's life.

He came agreeable to his promise, and conducted himself suitable to the occasion.

He speaks very fluent, reads excellent, but does not think very coherent.

He behaved himself submissive, and was exceeding careful not to give offence.

They rejected the advice, and conducted themselves exceedingly indiscreetly.

He is a person of a great abilities, and exceeding upright: and is like to be a very useful member of the community.

The conspiracy was the easier discovered, from its being known to many.

Not being fully acquainted with the subject, he could affirm no stronger than he did.

He was so deeply impressed with the subject, that few could speak nobler upon it.

We may credit his testimony, for he says express, that he saw the transaction.

Use a little wine for thy stomach's sake, and thine often infirmities.

From these favorable beginnings, we may hope for a soon and prosperous issue.

He addressed several exhortations to them suitably to their circumstances.

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Conformably to their vehemence of thought, was their vehemence of gesture.

We should implant in the minds of youth, such seeds and principles of piety and virtue, as are likely to take the soonest and deepest root.

Such an amiable disposition will secure universal regard.

Such distinguished virtues seldom occur.

It is more easier to build two chimneys than to maintain one.

The tongue is like a race-horse; which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries.

The pleasures of the understanding are more preferable than those of the imagination, or of sense.

The nightingale sings: hers is the most sweetest voice in the grove.

The Most Highest hath created us for his glory, and our own happiness.

The Supreme Being is the most wisest, and most powerfullest, and the most best of beings.

Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man; and should be his chiefest desire.

His assertion was more true than that of his opponent; nay, the words of the latter were most untrue.

His work is perfect; his brother's more perfect; and his father's the most perfect of all.

He gave the fullest and the most sincere proof of the truest friendship.

A talent of this kind would, perhaps, prove the likeliest of any other to succeed.

He is the strongest of the two, but not the wisest.

He spoke with so much propriety, that I understood him the best of all others, who spoke on the subject.

Eve was the fairest of all her daughters.

He spoke in a distinct enough manner to be heard by the whole assembly.

Thomas is equipped with a new pair of shoes, and a new pair of gloves: he is the servant of an old rich man.

The two first in the row are cherry-trees, the two others are pear trees.

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Exercises on Rule XIV

My ancestors virtue is not mine.

His brothers offence will not condemn him.

I will not destroy the city for ten sake.

Nevertheless, Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord.

A mothers tenderness and a fathers care, are natures gift's for mans advantage.

A mans manner's frequently influence his fortune.

Wisdoms precepts form the good mans interest and happiness.

Examples adapted to the Review under Rule XIV.

It was the men's, women's, and children's lot, to suffer great calamities.

Peter's, John's, and Andrew's occupation, was that of fishermen.

This measure gained the king, as well as the people's approbation.

Not only the counsel's and attorney's but the judge's opinion also, favored his cause.

And he cast himself down at Jesus feet.

Moses rod was turned into a serpent.

For Herodias sake, his brother Philips wife.

If ye suffer for righteousness's sake, happy are ye.

Ye should be subject for conscience's sake.

They very justly condemned the prodigal's, as he was called, senseless and extravagant conduct.

They implicitly obeyed the protector's, as they called him, imperious mandates.

I bought the knives at Johnson's, the cutler's.

The silk was purchased at Brown's, the mercer's and haberdasher's.

Lord Feversham the general's tent.

This palace had been the grand Sultan's Mahomet's.

I will not for David's thy father's sake.

He took refuge at the governor, the king's representative's.

Whose work's are these ? They are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's.

The world's government is not left to chance.

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She married my son's wife's brother.

This is my wife's brother's partner's house.

It was necessary to have both the physician's and the surgeon's advice.

The extent of the prerogative of the king of England is sufficiently ascertained.

This picture of the king's does not much resemble him.

These pictures of the king were sent to him from Italy.

This estate of the corporation's is much encumbered.

This is the eldest son of the king of England's.

What can be the cause of the parliament neglecting so important a business?

Much depends on this rule being observed.

The time of William making the experiment at length arrived.

It is very probable that this assembly was called to clear some doubt which the king had, about the lawfulness of the Hollanders their throwing off the monarchy of Spain, and their withdrawing entirely their allegiance to that crown.

If we alter the situation of any of the words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering.

Such will ever be the effect of youth associating with vicious companions.

Exercises on Rule XV.

They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature.

You have reason to dread his wrath, which one day will destroy ye both.

Who have I reason to love so much as this friend of my youth.

Ye, who were dead, hath he quickened.

Who did they entertain so freely.

The man who he raised from obscurity, is dead.

Ye only have I known of all the families of the earth.

He and they we know, but who are you?

She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

Who did they send to him on so important an errand?

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That is the friend who you must receive cordially, and who you cannot esteem too highly.

He invited my brother and I to see and examine his library.

He who committed the offence, you should correct; not I who am innocent.

We should fear and obey the Author of our being, even He who has power to reward or punish us for ever.

They who he had most injured, he had the greatest reason to love.

Examples adapted to the Review under Rule XV.

Though he now takes pleasure in them, he will one day repent him of indulgences so unwarrantable.

The nearer his virtues approached him to the great example before him, the humbler he grew.

It will be very difficult to agree his conduct with the principles he professes.

To ingratiate with some, by traducing others, marks a base and despicable mind.

I shall premise with two or three general observations.

If such maxims, and such practices prevail, what has become of decency and virtue?

I have come according to the time proposed; but I have fallen upon an evil hour.

The mighty rivals are now at length agreed.

The influence of his corrupt example was then entirely ceased.

He was entered into the connexion, before the consequences were considered.

Whatever others do, let thou and I act wisely.

Let them and we unite to oppose this growing evil.

Exercises on Rule XVIII.

It being her who was implicated, we did not proceed to extremities.

Suspecting not only you, but they also, I chose to avoid all intercourse.

I could not avoid considering them as enemies, and he as a suspicious friend.

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Examples adapted to the Review under Rule XVIII.

By observing of truth, you will command esteem, as well as secure peace.

He prepared them for this event, by the sending to them proper information.

A person may be great or rich by chance; but cannot be wise or good, without the taking pains for it.

Nothing could have made her so unhappy, as the marrying a man who possessed such principles.

The changing of times and seasons, the removing and setting up of kings, belong to Providence alone.

The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for gaining of wisdom. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying our wants; and riches upon the enjoying our superfluities.

Pliny, speaking of Cato the Censor's disapproving the Grecian orators, expressed himself thus.

Propriety of pronuneiation is the giving to every word that sound, which the most polite usage of the language appropriates to it.

The not attending to this rule, is the cause of a very common error.

This was in fact a converting the deposite to his own use.

There will be no danger of their spoiling their faces, or of their gaining converts.

For his avoiding that precipice, he is indebted to his friend's care.

It was from our misunderstanding the directions, that we lost our way.

In trating of his history, we discover little that is worthy of imitation.

By reading of books written by the best authors, his mind became highly improved.

By too eager pursuit, he run a great risk of being disappointed.

He had not long enjoyed repose, before he begun to be weary of having nothing to do.

He was greatly heated, and drunk with avidity.

Though his conduct was, in some respects, exception-

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able, yet he dared not to commit so great an offence, as that which was proposed to him.

A second deluge learning thus o'er-run :
And the monks finish'd what the Goths begun.

If some events had fell out very unexpectedly, I should have been present.

He would have went with us, had he been invited.

He returned the goods which he had stole, and made all the reparation in his power.

They have chose the part of honor and virtue.

His vices have weakened his mind, and broke his health.

He had mistook his true interest, and found himself forsook by his former adherents.

The bread that has been eat is soon forgot.

No contentions have arose amongst them since their reconciliation.

The cloth had no seam, but was wove throughout.

The French language is spoke in every state in Europe.

His resolution was too strong to be shook by slight opposition.

He was not much restrained afterwards, having took improper liberties at first.

He has not yet wore off the rough manners, which he brought with him.

You who have forsook your friends, are entitled to no confidence.

They who have bore a part in the labor, shall share the rewards.

When the rules have been wantonly broke, there can be no plea for favor.

He writes as the best authors would have wrote, had they writ on the same subject.

He heapt up great riches, but past his time miserably.

He talkt and stampt with such vehemence, that he was suspected to be insane.

Exercises on Rule XIX.

It is better live on a little, than outlive a great deal.

You ought not walk too hastily

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I wish him not wrestle with his happiness.

I need not to solicit him to do a kind action.

I dare not to proceed so hastily, lest I should give offence.

I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly.

It is a great support to virtue, when we see a good mind to maintain its patience and tranquillity, under injuries and affliction, and to cordially forgive its oppressors.

It is the difference of their conduct, which makes us to approve the one, and to reject the other.

We should not be like many persons, to depreciate the virtues we do not possess.

To see young persons who are courted by health and pleasure, to resist all the allurements of vice, and to steadily pursue virtue and knowledge, is cheering and delightful to every good mind.

They acted with so much reserve, that some persons doubted them to be sincere.

And the multitude wondered, when they saw the lame to walk, and the blind to see.

Exercises on Rule XXIII.

He was pleasing not often because he was vain.

William nobly acted, though he was unsuccessful.

We may happily live, though our possessions are small.

From whence we may date likewise the period of this event.

It cannot be impertinent or ridiculous therefore to remonstrate.

He offered an apology, which being not admitted, he became submissive.

These things should be never separated.

Unless he have more government of himself, he will be always discontented.

Never sovereign was so much beloved by the people

He was determined to invite back the king, and to call together his friends.

So well educated a boy gives great hopes to his friends.

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Not only he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also.

We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure.

It is impossible continually to be at work.

The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually.

Having not known, or having not considered, the measures proposed, he failed of success.

My opinion was given on rather a cursory perusal of the book.

It is too common with mankind, to be engrossed, and overcome totally, by present events.

When the Romans were pressed with a foreign enemy, the women contributed all their rings and jewels voluntarily, to assist the government.

Examples adapted to the Review under this Rule.

They could not persuade him, though they were never so eloquent.

If some persons' opportunities were never so favorable, they would be too indolent to improve them.

He drew up a petition, where he too freely represented his own merits.

His follies had reduced him to a situation where he had much to fear, and nothing to hope.

It is reported that the prince will come here to-morrow.

George is active; he walked there in less than an hour

Where are you all going in such haste?

Whither have they been since they left the city?

Charles left the seminary too early, since when he has made very little improvement.

Nothing is better worth the while of young persons, than the acquisition of knowledge and virtue.

Neither riches nor honors, nor no such perishing goods, can satisfy the desires of an immortal spirit.

Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise.

We need not, nor do not, confine his operations to narrow limits.

I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present, nor at any other time.

There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity.

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Nothing never affected her so much as this misconduct of her child.

Do not interrupt me yourselves, nor let no one disturb my retirement.

These people do not judge wisely, nor take no proper measures to effect their purpose.

The measure is so exceptionable, that we cannot by no means permit it.

I have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor from his friend.

Precept nor discipline is not so forcible as example.

The king nor the queen was not at all deceived in the business.

Exercises on Rule XXIV.

We are all accountable creatures, each for hisself.

They willingly, and of theirselves endeavoured to make up the difference.

He laid the suspicion upon somebody, I know not who, in the company.

I hope it is not I who he is displeased with.

To poor we, there is not much hope remaining.

Does that boy know who he speaks to? Who does he offer such language to?

It was not he that they were angry with.

What concord can subsist between those who commit crimes and those who abhor them?

The person who I travelled with, has sold the horse which he rode on during our journey.

It is not I he is engaged with.

Who did he receive that intelligence from?

Examples adapted to the Review under this Rule.

To have no one who we heartily wish well to, and who we are warmly concerned for, is a deplorable state

He is a friend who I am highly indebted to.

On these occasions, the pronoun is governed by, and consequently agrees with the preceding word.

They were refused entrance into, and forcibly driven from, the house.

We are often disappointed of things, which, before possession, promised much enjoyment.

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I have frequently desired their company, but have always hitherto been disappointed in that pleasure.

She finds a difficulty in fixing her mind.

Her sobriety is no derogation to her understanding.

There was no water, and he died for thirst.

We can fully confide on none but the truly good.

I have no occasion of his services.

Many have profited from good advice.

Many ridiculous practices have been brought in vogue.

The error was occasioned by compliance to earnest entreaty.

This is a principle in unison to our nature.

We should entertain no prejudices to simple and rustic persons.

They are at present resolved of doing their duty.

That boy is known under the name of the Idler.

Though conformable with custom, it is not warrantable.

This remark is founded in truth.

His parents think on him, and his improvements, with pleasure and hope.

His excuse was admitted of by his master.

What went ye out for to see?

There appears to have been a million men brought into the field.

His present was accepted of by his friends.

More than a thousand of men were destroyed.

It is my request that he will be particular in speaking to the following points.

The Saxons reduced the greater part of Britain to their own power.

He lives opposite the Royal Exchange.

Their house is situated to the north-east side of the road.

The performance was approved of by all who understood it.

He was accused with having acted unfairly.

She has an abhorrence to all deceitful conduct.

They were some distance from home, when the accident happened.

His deportment was adapted for conciliating regard.

My father writes me very frequently.

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Their conduct was agreeable with their profession.

We went leisurely above stairs, and came hastily below.

We shall write up stairs this forenoon, and down stairs in the afternoon.

The politeness of the world has the same resemblance with benevolence, that the shadow has with the substance.

He had a taste of such studies, and pursued them earnestly.

When we have had a true taste for the pleasures of virtue, we can have no relish for those of vice.

How happy is it to know how to live at times by one's self, to leave one's self in regret, to find one's self again with pleasure! The world is then less necessary for us.

Civility makes its way among every kind of persons.

I have been to London, after having resided a year at France; and I now live at Islington.

They have just landed in Hull, and are going for Liverpool. They intend to reside some time at Ireland.

Exercises on Rule XXVI.

Professing regard, and to act differently, discover a base mind.

Did he not tell me his fault, and entreated me to forgive him?

My brother and him are tolerable grammarians.

If he understand the subject, and attends to it industriously, he can hardly fail of success.

You and us enjoy many privileges.

If a man have a hundred sheep, and one of them is gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray?

She and him are very unhappily connected.

To be moderate in our views, and proceeding temperately in the pursuit of them, is the best way to ensure success.

Between him and I there is some disparity of years; but none between him and she.

By forming themselves on fantastic models, and rea-

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dy to vie with one another in the reigning follies, the young begin with being ridiculous, and end with being vicious and immoral.

The following Rules, though not necessary in parsing, are a guide to the proper construction of sentences, and will enable the learner to correct many inaccuracies.

RULE I.

In the use of words and phrases which, in point of time, relate to each other, a due regard to that relation should be observed.

Instead of saying, the 'Lord *hath given*, and the Lord *hath taken* away;' we should say, 'The Lord *gave*, and the Lord *hath taken* away.' Instead of, 'I *remember* the family more than twenty years;' it should be, 'I *have remembered* the family more than twenty years.'

It is not easy, in all cases, to give particular rules, for the management of words and phrases which relate to one another, so that they may be proper and consistent The best rule that can be given, is this very general one, 'To observe what the sense necessarily requires.' It may, however, be of use, to exhibit a number of instances, in which the construction is irregular. The following are of this nature.

'I have completed the work more than a week ago;' 'I have seen the coronation at Westminster last summer.' These sentences should have been; 'I *completed* the work,' &c.: 'I *saw* the coronation,' &c.: because the perfect tense extends to a past period, which immediately precedes, or includes, the present time; and it cannot, therefore, apply to the time of *a week ago*, or to *last midsummer*.

'Charles has lately finished the reading of Henry's History of England:' It should be, 'Charles *lately finished*,' &c.; the word *lately* referring to a time completely past, without any allusion to the present time.

'They have resided in Italy, till a few months ago, for the benefit of their health:' It should be, 'they *resided* in Italy,' &c.

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'This mode of expression has been formerly much admired:' It ought to be, '*was* formerly much admired.'

'The business is not done here, in the manner in which it has been done, some years since in Germany:' It should be, 'in the manner in which it *was* done,' &c.

'I will pay the vows which my lips have uttered, when I was in trouble:' It ought to be, 'which my lips *uttered*,' &c.

'I have in my youth, trifled with health; and old age now prematurely assails me:' It should be, 'in my youth I *trifled* with health,' &c.

The five examples last mentioned, are corrected on the same principle that the preceding examples are corrected.

'Charles has grown considerably since I have seen him the last time:' This sentence ought to be, 'Charles *has* grown considerably, since I *saw* him the last time.'

'Payment was, at length, made, but no reason assigned for its being so long postponed:' It should be, 'for its *having been* so long postponed.'

'He became so meek and submissive, that to be in the house as one of the hired servants, was now the utmost of his wishes:' It ought to be, 'was *then* the utmost of his wishes.'

'They were arrived an hour before we reached the city:' It ought to be, 'they *had arrived*,' &c.; because *arrived*, in this phrase, denotes an event not only past, but prior to the time referred to, by the words, 'reached the city.'

'The workmen will finish the business at midsummer.' According to the meaning, it ought to be, 'The workmen *will have finished*.' &c.

'All the present family have been much indebted to their great and honorable ancestor:' it should be, '*are* much indebted.'

'This curious piece of workmanship was preserved and shown to strangers for more than fifty years past:' It ought to be, '*has been preserved*, and *been shown*.' &c.

'I had rather walk than ride:' It should be, 'I *would* rather walk than ride.'

'On the morrow, because he should have known the certainty wherefore he was accused of the Jews, he

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loosed him :' It ought to be, 'because he *would know* ;' or rather, '*being willing to know*.'

'The blind man said unto him, Lord, that I might receive my sight ;' 'If by any means I might attain unto the resurrection of the dead :' In both these places, *may* would have been better than *might*.

'I feared that I should have lost the parcel, before I arrived at the city :' It should be, 'I feared that *I should lose*,' &c.

'It would have afforded me no satisfaction, if I could perform it :' It ought to be, 'if I *could have performed* it ;' or, 'it *would afford* me no satisfaction, if I *could perform* it.'

To preserve consistency in the time of verbs, and of words and phrases, we must recollect that, in the subjunctive mode, the present and the imperfect tenses often carry with them a future tense ; and that the auxiliaries *should* and *would*, in the imperfect time, are used to express the present and future, as well as the past.

With regard to verbs in the infinitive mode, the practice of many writers, and some even of our most respectable writers, appears to be erroneous. They seem not to advert to the true principles, which influence the different tenses of this mode. I shall produce some rules on the subject, which, I presume, will be found perspicuous and accurate. 'All verbs, expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, must invariably be followed by the present, and not the perfect of the infinitive.' 'The last week I intended *to have written*,' is a very common phrase ; the infinitive being in the past time, as well as the verb which it follows. But it is evidently wrong : for how long soever it now is since I thought of writing, 'to write' was then present to me: and must still be considered as present, when I bring back that time, and the thoughts of it. It ought, therefore, to be ; 'The last week, I intended to *write*.'

The following sentence is properly and analogically expressed : 'I found him better than I expected to find him.' 'Expected *to have found him*,' is irreconcilable to grammar and to sense. Every person would perceive an error in this expression : 'It is long since I commanded him *to have done* it :' yet, 'expected to *have*

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found,' is not better. It is as clear, that the *finding* must be posterior to the expectation, as that the *obedience* must be posterior to the command.

As the verbs *to desire* and *to wish*, are nearly related, one might naturally suppose, from the rule just laid down, that the latter verb, like the former, must invariably be followed by the present of the infinitive. But if we reflect, that the act of *desiring* always refers to the future; and that the act of *wishing* refers sometimes to the past, as well as sometimes to the future; we shall perceive the distinction between them, and that, consequently, the following modes of expression are strictly justifiable: 'I wished *that I had written* sooner;' 'I wished *to have written* sooner:' and you will be perfectly satisfied, that the following phrases must be improper: 'I desire that I had written sooner;' 'I desire to have written sooner.'

Having considered and explained the special rule, respecting the government of verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, I shall proceed to state and elucidate the general rule, on the subject of verbs in the infinitive mode. It is founded on the authority of Harris, Lowth, Campbell, Pickbourn, &c.; and I think too, on the authority of reason and common sense. 'When the action or event, signified by a verb in the infinitive mode, is *contemporary* or *future*, with respect to the verb to which it is chiefly related, the present of the infinitive is required: when it is *not* contemporary *nor* future, the perfect of the infinitive is necessary.' To comprehend and apply this rule, we have only to consider, whether the infinitive verb refers to a time antecedent, contemporary, or future, with regard to the governing or related verb. When this simple point is ascertained, there will be no doubt respecting the form which the infinitive verb should have. A few examples may illustrate these positions. If I wish to signify, that I rejoiced at a particular time, in recollecting the sight of a friend, sometime having intervened between the *seeing* and the *rejoicing*, I should express myself thus: 'I rejoiced *to have seen* my friend.' The *seeing*, in this case, was evidently antecedent to the *rejoicing*; and therefore the verb which expresses the former, must be in the perfect of the infinitive mode. The same meaning may be expressed in a

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different form: 'I rejoiced *that I had seen* my friend;' or, '*in having seen* my friend;' and you may, in general, try the propriety of a doubtful point of this nature, by converting the phrase into these two corresponding forms of expression. When it is convertible into both these equivalent phrases, its legitimacy must be admitted.—If, on the contrary, I wish to signify, that I rejoiced at the sight of my friend, that my joy and his surprise were contemporary, I should say, 'I rejoiced *to see* my friend;' or, in other words, 'I rejoiced *in seeing* my friend.' The correctness of this form of the infinitive may also, in most cases, be tried, by converting the phrase into other phrases of a similar import.

The subject may be still further illustrated by additional examples. In the sentence which follows, the verb is with propriety put in the perfect tense of the infinitive mode: 'It would have afforded me great pleasure, as often as I reflected upon it, *to have been* the messenger of such intelligence.' As the message, in this instance, was antecedent to the pleasure, and not contemporary with it, the verb expressive of the message must denote that antecedence, by being in the perfect of the infinitive. If, on the contrary, the message and the pleasure were referred to as contemporary, the subsequent verb would, with equal propriety, have been put in the present of the infinitive: as, 'It would have afforded me great pleasure, *to be* the messenger of such intelligence.' In the former instance, the phrase in question is equivalent to these words; '*If I had been* the messenger;' in the latter instance, to this expression; '*Being* the messenger.'

For the satisfaction of the learner, I shall present a variety of false constructions, under the general rule.

'This is a book which proves itself to be written by the person whose name it bears;' it ought to be, 'which proves itself *to have been written*.'

'To see him would have afforded me pleasure all my life;' it should be, '*To have seen* him, would have afforded,' &c. or, '*To see him would afford* me pleasure,' &c.

'The arguments were sufficient to have satisfied all who heard them;' 'Providence did not permit the reign of Julian to have been long and prosperous:' they should

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be, 'were sufficient *to satisfy*,' &c. and, '*to be* long and prosperous.'

'It was impossible for those men, by any diligence whatever, to have prevented this accident: everything that men could have done, was done;' corrected thus; '*to prevent* this accident;' 'every thing that men *could do*,' &c.

'The respect shown to the candidate would have been greater, if it had been practicable to have afforded repeated opportunities to the freeholders, to have annexed their names to the address:' they should be, 'if it had been practicable *to afford*,' and '*to annex* their names.'

'From his biblical knowledge, he appears to study the Holy Scriptures with great attention:' it ought to be, 'he appears *to have studied*,' &c.

'I cannot excuse the remissness of those whose business it should have been, as it certainly was their interest, to have interposed their good offices:' 'There were two circumstances which made it necessary for them to have lost no time:' 'History painters would have found it difficult to have invented such a species of beings.' In these three examples, the phrases should have been, '*to interpose, to lose, to invent*.'

It is proper to remind the learner, that, in order to express the past time with the defective verb *ought*, the perfect of the infinitive must always be used: as, 'He ought *to have* done it.' When we use this verb, this is the only possible way to distinguish the past from the present.

In support of the positions advanced under this rule, the sentiments of the most eminent grammarians can be produced. There are, however, some writers on grammar, who strenuously maintain, that the governed verb in the infinitive ought to be in the past tense, when the verb which governs it, is in the past time. Though this cannot be admitted, in the instances which are controverted under this rule, or in any instances of a similar nature, yet there can be no doubt that in many cases, in which the thing referred to, preceded the governing verb, it would be proper and allowable. We may say; 'From a conversation I once had with him, he *appeared to have studied* Homer with great care and

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judgment.' It would be proper also to say, 'from his conversation, he *appears to have studied* Homer, with great care and judgment;' 'That unhappy man *is supposed to have died* by violence.' These examples are not only consistent with our rule, but they confirm and illustrate it. It is the tense of the governing verb only, that marks what is called the absolute time; the tense of the verb governed, marks solely its relative time with respect to the verb.

To assert, as some writers do, that verbs in the infinitive mode have no tenses, no relative distinctions of present, past, and future, is inconsistent with just grammatical views of the subject. That these verbs associate with verbs in all the tenses, is no proof of their having no peculiar time of their own. Whatever period the governing verb assumes, whether present, past, or future, the governed verb in the infinitive always respects that period, and its time is calculated from it.

Thus, the time of the infinitive may be before, after, or the same as, the time of the governing verb, according as the thing signified by the infinitive, is supposed to be before, after, or present with, the thing denoted by the governing verb. It is, therefore, with great propriety, that tenses are assigned to verbs of the infinitive mode. The point of time from which they are computed, is of no consequence; since present, past, and future, are completely applicable to them.

It may not be improper to observe, that though it is often correct to use the perfect of the infinitive after the governing verb, yet there are particular cases, in which it would be better to give the expression a different form. Thus, instead of saying, 'I wish to have written to him sooner,' 'I then wished to have written to him sooner,' 'He will one day wish to have written sooner:' it would be more perspicuous and forcible, as well as more agreeable to the practice of good writers, to say; 'I wish that I had written to him sooner,' 'He will one day wish that he had written sooner.'

Should the justness of these strictures be admitted, the past infinitive would not be superseded, though some grammarians have supposed it would: there would still be numerous occasions for the use of it; as we may per-

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ceive by a few examples. 'It would ever afterwards have been a source of pleasure, to have found him wise and virtuous.' 'To have deferred his repentance longer, would have disqualified him for repenting at all.' 'They will then see, that to have faithfully performed their duty, would have been their greatest consolation.'

In relating things that were formerly expressed by another person, we often meet with modes of expression similar to the following:

'The travellers who lately came from the south of England, said that the harvest there *was* very abundant:' 'I met Charles yesterday, who told me that he *is* very happy:' 'The professor asserted that a resolute adherence to truth *is* an indispensable duty:' 'The preacher said very audibly, that whatever *was* useful, *was* good.'

In referring to declarations of this nature, the present tense must be used, if the position is immutably the same at all times, or supposed to be so: as, 'The bishop declared, that virtue is always advantageous:' not, '*was* always advantageous.' But if the assertion referred to something that is not always the same, or supposed to be so, the past tense must be applied: as, 'George said that he *was* very happy:' not, '*is* very happy.'

The following sentences will fully exemplify, to the young grammarian, both the parts of this rule. 'He declared to us, that he *was* afraid of no man; because conscious innocence *gives* firmness of mind.' 'He protested, that he *believed* what *was* said, because it *appeared* to him probable.' 'Charles asserted that it *was* his opinion that men always *succeed*, when they *use* precaution and pains.' 'The doctor declared to his audience, that if virtue *suffers* some pains, she *is* amply recompensed by the pleasure which attends her.'

Exercises on Rule I.

The next new year's day, I shall be at school three years.

And he that was dead, sat up, and began to speak.

I should be obliged to him if he will gratify me in that particular.

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And the multitude wondered when they saw the dumb to speak, the maimed to be whole, the lame walk, and the blind seeing.

I have compassion on the multitude, because they continue with me now three days.

In the treasury belonging to the cathedral in this city, is preserved with the greatest veneration, for upwards of six hundred years, a dish which they pretend to be made of emerald.

The court of Rome gladly laid hold on all the opportunities, which the imprudence, weakness, or necessities of princes, afford it, to extend its authority.

Fierce as he moved, his silver shafts resound.

They maintained that scripture conclusion, that all mankind rise from one head.

John will earn his wages, when his service is completed.

Ye will not come unto me, that ye might have life.

Be that as it will, he cannot justify his conduct.

I have been at London a year, and seen the king last summer.

After we visited London, we returned, content and thankful, to our retired and peaceful habitation.

Examples adapted to the Remarks under Rule I.

I purpose to go to London in a few months, and after I shall finish my business there, to proceed to America.

These prosecutions of William seem to be the most iniquitous measures pursued by the court, during the time that the use of parliaments was suspended.

From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of letters.

I always intended to have rewarded my son according to his merit.

It would, on reflection, have given me great satisfaction, to relieve him from that distressed situation.

It required so much care, that I thought I should have lost it before I reached home.

We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.

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He would have assisted one of his friends, if he could do it without injuring the other; but as that could not have been done, he avoided all interference.

Must it not be expected, that he would have defended an authority, which had been so long exercised without controversy?

These enemies of Christianity were confounded, whilst they were expecting to have found an opportunity to have betrayed its author.

His sea sickness was so great, that I often feared he would have died before our arrival.

If these persons had intended to deceive, they would have taken care to have avoided, what would expose them to the objections of their opponents.

It was a great pleasure to have received his approbation of my labors; for which I cordially thanked him.

It would have afforded me still greater pleasure, to receive his approbation at an earlier period: but to receive it at all, reflected credit upon me.

To be censured by him, would soon have proved an insuperable discouragement.

> Him, portion'd maids, apprentic'd orphans blest,
> The young who labor, and the old who rest.

The doctor, in his lecture, said, that fever always produced thirst.

RULE II.

Some conjunctions require the indicative, and some the subjunctive mode after them. When something contingent or doubtful is implied, the verb is in the subjunctive mode; but conjunctions that are of a positive and absolute nature require the indicative mode.

The conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, &c. generally require the subjunctive mode; as, '*If* thou *be* afflicted, repine not;' '*Though* he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him;' 'He cannot be clean *unless* he *wash* himself;' 'No power, *except* it *were* given from above;' '*Whether* it *were* I or they, so we preach.'

Almost all the irregularities, in the construction of any language, have arisen from the ellipsis of some words, which were originally inserted in the sentence, and made it regular; and it is probable, that this has been general-

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ly the case with respect to the conjunctive form of words, now in use ; which will appear from the following examples : 'We shall overtake him though he *run;*' that is, 'though he *should* run ;' 'unless he *act* prudently, he will not accomplish his purpose ;' that is, 'unless he *shall* act prudently.' 'If he *succeed* and *obtain* his end, he will not be the happier for it ;' that is, 'if he *should* succeed, and *should* obtain his end.' These remarks and examples are designed to show the original of many of our present conjunctive forms of expression; and to enable the student to examine the propriety of using them, by tracing the words in question to their proper origin and ancient connexions. But it is necessary to be more particular on this subject, and therefore I shall add a few observations respecting it.

That part of the verb which grammarians call the present tense of the subjunctive mode, has a future signification. This is effected by not varying the terminations of the second and third persons singular as the indicative does ; as will be evident from the following examples : "If thou *prosper*, thou shouldst be thankful." "Unless he *study* more closely, he will never be learned." Some writers however would express these sentiments with the personal variations ; "If thou *prosperest*," &c. "Unless he *studies*," &c. : and as there is a great diversity of practice in this point, it is proper to offer a few remarks to assist the learner in distinguishing the right application of these different forms of expression. It may be considered as a rule, that no changes of termination are necessary, when these two circumstances concur : 1st, When the subject is of a dubious and contingent nature ; and 2d, When the verb has a reference to future time. In the following sentence, both these circumstances will be found to unite : "If thou *injure* another, thou wilt hurt thyself ;" "He has a hard heart ; and if he *continue* impenitent, he must suffer." "He will maintain his principles, though he *lose* his estate ;" "Whether he *succeed* or not, his intention is laudable ;' 'If he *be* not prosperous, he will not repine.' 'If a man *smite* his servant, and he *die*,' &c. *Exodus* xxi. 20. In all these examples, the things signified by the verbs are uncertain, and refer to future time.

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But in the instances which follow, future time is not referred to; and therefore a different construction takes place: 'If thou *livest* virtuously, thou art happy;' 'Unless he *means* what he says, he is doubly faithless;' 'If he *allows* the excellence of virtue, he does not regard her precepts;' 'If thou *believest* with all thy heart, thou mayst,' &c. *Acts* viii. 37.

There are many sentences, introduced by conjunctions, in which neither contingency nor futurity is denoted: as, '*Though* he *excels* her in knowledge, she far exceeds him in virtue;' '*Though* he *is* poor, he is contented;' and then the verbs are in the indicative mode: *were* therefore, in the following sentence, is erroneous. '*Though* he *were* divinely inspired, and spoke therefore as the oracles of God, with supreme authority; *though* he *were* endued with supernatural powers, and could, therefore, have confirmed the truth of what he uttered, by miracles: yet, in compliance with the way in which human nature and reasonable creatures are usually wrought upon, he reasoned.' That our Saviour was divinely inspired, and endued with supernatural powers, are positions that are here taken for granted, as not admitting the least doubt; therefore the indicative mode, '*Though* he *was* divinely inspired; *though* he *was* endued with supernatural powers;' would have been better.

Lest and *that*, annexed to a command preceding, necessarily require the following verb to be in the subjunctive mode; as, 'Love not sleep, *lest* thou *come* to poverty;' 'Reprove not a scorner, *lest* he *hate* thee;' 'Take heed *that* thou *speak* not to Jacob.'

If with *but* following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the subjunctive mode: as, '*If* he *do but* touch the hills, they shall smoke;' '*If* he *be but* discreet, he will succeed.' But the indicative ought to be used, on this occasion, when future time is not signified: as, '*If*, in this expression he *does but jest*, no offence should be taken;' '*If* she *is but* sincere, I am happy.' The same distinction applies to the following forms of expression: 'If he *do* submit, it will be from necessity;' If thou *do* not reward this service, he will be discouraged;' 'If thou *dost* heartily forgive him, endeavour to forget the offence.'

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In the following instances, the conjunction *that*, expressed or understood, seems to be improperly accompanied with the subjunctive mode. 'So much she dreaded his tyranny, *that* the fate of her friend she *dare* not lament.' 'He reasoned so artfully that his friends would listen, and think [*that*] he *were* not wrong.'

The same conjunction followed both by the indicative and subjunctive modes, in the same sentence, and in the same circumstances, seems to be a great impropriety; as in these instances. '*If* there *be* but one body of legislators, it is no better than a tyranny; *if* there *are* only two, there will want a casting voice.' '*If* a man *have* a hundred sheep, and one of them *is* gone astray,' &c.

On the form of the auxiliaries in the compound tenses of the subjunctive mode, it seems proper to make a few observations. Some writers express themselves in the perfect tense as follows: 'If thou *have* determined, we must submit:' 'Unless we *have* consented, the writing will be void:' but we believe that few authors of critical sagacity write in this manner. The proper form seems to be, 'If thou *hast* determined; unless he has consented,' &c. conformably to what we generally meet with in the Bible: 'I have surnamed thee, though thou *hast* not known me.' *Isaiah* xlv. 4. 'What is the hope of the hypocrite, though he *hath* gained,' &c. *Job* xxvii. 8. See also *Acts* xxviii. 4.

In the pluperfect and future tenses, we sometimes meet with such expressions as these: 'If thou *had* applied thyself diligently, thou wouldst have reaped the advantage; unless thou *shall* speak the whole truth, we cannot determine;' 'If thou *will* undertake the business there is little doubt of success.' This mode of expressing the auxiliaries, does not appear to be warranted by the general practice of correct writers. They should be, *hadst*, *shalt*, and *wilt*: and we find them used in this form, in the sacred Scriptures.

'If thou *hadst* known,' &c. *Luke* xix. 47. 'If thou *hadst* been here,' &c. *John* xi. 21. 'If thou *wilt*, thou canst make me clean.' *Matt.* viii. 2. See also, 2 *Sam.* ii. 27. *Matt.* xvii. 4.

The second person singular of the imperfect tense in the subjunctive mode, is also very frequently used

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without the personal termination: as, 'If thou *loved* him truly, thou wouldst obey him;' 'Though thou *did* conform, thou hast gained nothing by it.' This, however, appears to be improper. Our present version of the Scriptures, which is again referred to, as a good grammatical authority in points of this nature, decides against it. 'If thou *knewest* the gift,' &c. *John* iv. 10. 'If thou *didst* receive it, why dost thou glory?' &c. 1 *Cor.* iv. 7. See also *Dan.* v. 22.

It may not be superfluous also to observe, that the auxiliaries of the potential mode, when applied to the subjunctive, retain the termination of the second person singular. We properly say, 'If thou *mayst* or *canst* go;' 'Though thou *mightst* live;' 'Unless thou *couldst* read;' 'If thou *wouldst* learn;' and not, 'If thou *may* or *can* go;' &c. It is sufficient, on this point, to adduce the authorities of Johnson and Lowth: 'If thou *shouldst* go;' *Johnson.* 'If thou *mayst*, *mightst*, or *couldst* love;' *Lowth.* Some authors think, that when *that* expresses the motive or end, these auxiliaries should not be varied: as, 'I advise thee, *that* thou *may* beware;' 'He checked thee, *that* thou *should* not presume:' but there does not appear to be any ground for this exception. If the expression of 'condition, doubt, contingency,' &c. does not prevent a change in the form of these auxiliaries, why should they not vary, when a motive or end is expressed? The translators of the Scriptures do not appear to have made the distinction contended for. 'Thou buildest the wall, *that* thou *mayst* be their king.' *Neh.* vi. 6. 'There is forgiveness with thee, *that* thou *mayst* be feared.' *Psalm* cxxxv. 4.

Some conjunctions have their corresponding conjunctions belonging to them, so that, in the subsequent member of the sentence, the latter answers to the former: as,

1. THOUGH—YET, NEVERTHELESS: as, '*Though* he was rich, *yet* for our sakes he became poor.'
2. WHETHER—OR: as, '*Whether* he will go *or* not, I cannot tell.'
3. EITHER—OR: as, 'I will *either* send it, *or* bring it myself.'

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4. NEITHER—NOR : as, '*Neither* thou *nor* I am able to compass it.'
5. AS—AS : expressing a comparison of equality : as, 'She is *as* amiable *as* her sister.'
6. AS—SO : expressing a comparison of equality : '*As* the stars, *so* shall thy seed be.'
7. AS—SO : expressing a comparison of quality : as, '*As* the one dieth, *so* dieth the other.'
8. SO—AS : with the verb expressing a comparison of quality : as, 'To see thy glory, *so as* I have seen thee in the sanctuary.'
9. SO—AS : with a negative and an adjective expressing a comparison of quantity : as, 'Pompey was not *so* great a man *as* Cæsar.'
10. SO—THAT : expressing a consequence : as, 'He was *so* fatigued, *that* he could scarcely move.'

The conjunctions *or* and *nor* may often be used, with nearly equal propriety. 'The king, whose character was not sufficiently vigorous *nor* decisive, assented to the measure.' In this sentence, *or* would perhaps have been better : but, in general, *nor* seems to repeat the negation in the former part of the sentence, and therefore gives more emphasis to the expression.

Conjunctions are often improperly used, both singly and in pairs. The following are examples of this impropriety. 'The relations are so uncertain, as that they require a great deal of examination :' it should be, '*that* they require,' &c. 'There was no man so sanguine, who did not apprehend some ill consequences :' it ought to be, 'So sanguine as not to apprehend,' &c. ; or, 'no man, how sanguine soever, who did not,' &c. 'To trust in him, is no more but to acknowledge his power.' 'This is no other but the gate of paradise.' In both these instances, *but* should be *than*. 'We should sufficiently weigh the objects of our hope ; whether they are such as we may reasonably expect from them what they propose,' &c. It ought to be, '*that* we may reasonably,' &c. 'The duke had not behaved with that loyalty as he ought to have done ;' '*with which* he ought.' 'In the order as they lie in his preface :' it should be, 'in order as they lie ;' or, 'in the order *in which* they lie.'

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There is a peculiar neatness in a sentence beginning with the conjunctive from a verb. '*Were* there no difference, there would be no choice.'

A double conjunctive, in two correspondent clauses of a sentence, is sometimes made use of; as, '*Had* he done this, he *had* escaped:' '*Had* the limitations on the prerogative been, in his time, quite fixed and certain, his integrity *had* made him regard as sacred, the boundaries of the constitution.' The sentence in the common form would have read thus: 'If the limitations on the prerogative had been, &c. his integrity would have made him regard,' &c.

In regard that is solemn and antiquated; *because* would do much better in the following sentence. 'It cannot be otherwise, in regard that the French prosody differs from that of every other language.'

The word *except* is far preferable to *other than*. 'It admitted of no effectual cure other than amputation.' *Except* is also to be preferred to *all but*. 'They were happy all but the stranger.'

In the two following phrases, the conjunction *as* is improperly omitted; 'Which nobody presumes, or is so sanguine to hope.' 'I must, however, be so just to own.'

The conjunction *that* is often properly omitted, and understood: as, 'I beg you would come to me;' 'See thou do it not;' instead of 'that you would,' 'that thou do.' But in the following and many similar phrases this conjunction would be much better inserted: 'Yet it is reason the memory of their virtues remain to posterity.' It should be, 'yet it is *just that* the memory,' &c.

Exercises on Rule II.

If he acquires riches, they will corrupt his mind, and be useless to others.

Though he urges me yet more earnestly, I shall not comply, unless he advances more forcible reasons.

I shall walk in the fields to-day, unless it rains.

As the governess was present, the children behaved properly.

She disapproves the measure, because it were very improper.

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Though he be high, he hath respect to the lowly.

Though he were her friend, he did not attempt to justify her conduct.

Whether he improve or not, I cannot determine.

Though the fact be extraordinary, it certainly did happen.

Remember what thou wert, and be humble.

O! that his heart was tender, and susceptible of the woes of others.

> Shall then this verse to future age pretend,
> Thou wert my guide, philosopher, and friend?

Unless he learns faster, he will be no scholar.

Though he falls, he shall not be utterly cast down.

On condition that he comes, I will consent to stay.

However that affair terminates, my conduct will be unimpeachable.

If virtue rewards us not so soon as we desire, the payment will be made with interest.

Till repentance composes his mind, he will be a stranger to peace.

Whether he confesses, or not, the truth will certainly be discovered.

If thou censurest uncharitably, thou wilt be entitled to no favor.

Though, at times, the ascent of the temple of virtue, appears steep and craggy, be not discouraged. Persevere until thou gainest the summit: there, all is order, beauty, and pleasure.

If Charlotte desire to gain esteem and love, she does not employ the proper means.

Unless the accountant deceive me, my estate is considerably improved.

Though self-government produce some uneasiness, it is light, when compared with the pain of vicious indulgence.

Whether he think as he speaks, time will discover.

If thou censure uncharitably, thou deservest no favor.

Though virtue appear severe, she is truly amiable.

Though success be very doubtful, it is proper that he endeavours to succeed.

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Examples adapted to the Remarks under Rule II.

Despise not any condition, lest it happens to be your own.

Let him that is sanguine, take heed lest he miscarries.

Take care that thou breakest not any of the established rules.

If he does but intimate his desire, it will be sufficient to produce obedience.

At the time of his return, if he is but expert in the business, he will find employment.

If he do but speak to display his abilities, he is unworthy of attention.

If he be but in health, I am content.

If he does promise, he will certainly perform.

Though he do praise her, it is only for her beauty.

If thou dost not forgive, perhaps thou wilt not be forgiven.

If thou do sincerely believe the truths of religion, act accordingly.

His confused behaviour made it reasonable to suppose that he were guilty.

He is so conscious of deserving the rebuke, that he dare not make any reply.

His apology was so plausible, that many befriended him, and thought he were innocent.

If one man prefer a life of industry, it is because he has an idea of comfort in wealth; if another prefers a life of gayety, it is from a like idea concerning pleasure.

No one engages in that business, unless he aim at reputation, or hopes for some singular advantage.

Though the design be laudable, and is favorable to our interest, it will involve much anxiety and labor.

If thou have promised, be faithful to thy engagement.

Though he have proved his right to submission, he is too generous to exact it.

Unless he have improved, he is unfit for the office.

If thou had succeeded, perhaps thou wouldst not be the happier for it.

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Unless thou shall see the propriety of the measure, we shall not desire thy support.

Though thou will not acknowledge, thou canst not deny the fact.

If thou gave liberally, thou wilt receive a liberal reward.

Though thou did injure him, he harbours no resentment.

It would be well, if the report was only the misrepresentation of her enemies.

Was he ever so great and opulent, this conduct would debase him.

Was I to enumerate all her virtues, it would look like flattery.

Though I was perfect, yet would I not presume.

If thou may share in his labors, be thankful, and do it cheerfully.

Unless thou can fairly support the cause, give it up honorably.

Though thou might have foreseen the danger, thou couldst not have avoided it.

If thou could convince him, he would not act accordingly.

If thou would improve in knowledge, be diligent.

Unless thou should make a timely retreat, the danger will be unavoidable.

I have labored and wearied myself, that thou may be at ease.

He enlarged on those dangers, that thou should avoid them.

Neither the cold or the fervid, but characters uniformly warm, are formed for friendship.

They are both praiseworthy, and one is equally deserving as the other.

He is not as diligent and learned as his brother.

I will present it to him myself, or direct it to be given to him.

Neither despise or oppose what you do not understand.

The house is not as commodious as we expected it would be.

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I must, however, be so candid to own I have been mistaken.

There was something so amiable, and yet so piercing in his look, as affected me at once with love and terror.

> ——— 'I gain'd a son;
> And such a son, as all men hail'd me happy.'

The dog in the manger would not eat the hay himself, nor suffer the ox to eat it.

As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written.

We should faithfully perform the trust committed to us, or ingenuously relinquish the charge.

He is not as eminent, and as much esteemed, as he thinks himself to be.

The work is a dull performance; and is neither capable of pleasing the understanding, or the imagination.

There is no condition so secure, as cannot admit of change.

This is an event, which nobody presumes upon, or is so sanguine to hope for.

We are generally pleased with any little accomplishments of body or mind.

Be ready to succour such persons who need your assistance.

The matter was soon proposed, but he privately withdrew to consider it.

He has too much sense and prudence than to become a dupe to such artifices.

It is not sufficient that our conduct, as far as it respects others, appears to be unexceptionable.

The resolution was not the less fixed, that the secret was yet communicated to very few.

He opposed the most remarkable corruptions of the church of Rome, so as that his doctrines were embraced by great numbers.

He gained nothing further by his speech, but only to be commended for his eloquence.

He has little more of the scholar besides the name.

He has little of the scholar than the name.

They had no sooner risen, but they applied themselves to their studies.

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From no other institution, besides the admirable one of juries, could so great a benefit be expected.

Those savage people seemed to have no other element but war.

Such men that act treacherously, ought to be avoided.

Germany ran the same risk as Italy had done.

No errors are so trivial, but they deserve to be corrected.

RULE III.

To avoid disagreeable repetitions, and to express our ideas in few words, an ellipsis, or omission of some words, is frequently admitted. But when the omission of words would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety, they must be expressed.

Almost all compounded sentences are more or less elliptical; some examples of which may be seen under the different parts of speech.

1. The ellipsis of the *article* is thus used: 'A man, woman, and child;' that is, 'a man, a woman, and a child.' 'A house and garden;' that is, 'a house and a garden.' 'The sun and moon;' that is, 'the sun and the moon.' 'The day and hour;' that is, 'the day and the hour.' In all these instances, the article being once expressed, the repetition of it becomes unnecessary. There is, however, an exception to this observation, when some peculiar emphasis requires a repetition; as in the following sentence: 'Not only the year, but the day and the hour.' In this case, the ellipsis of the last article would be improper. When a different form of the article is requisite, the article is also properly repeated: as, '*a* house, and *an* orchard;' instead of, 'a house and orchard.'

2. The *noun* is frequently omitted in the following manner. 'The laws of God and man;' that is, 'the laws of God and the laws of man.' In some very emphatical expressions, the ellipsis should not be used: as, 'Christ the power of God, and the wisdom of God;' which is more emphatical than, 'Christ the power and wisdom of God.'

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3. The ellipsis of the *adjective* is used in the following manner, 'A delightful garden and orchard;' that is, 'a delightful garden and a delightful orchard.' 'A little man and woman; that is, 'a little man and a little woman.' In such elliptical expressions as these, the adjective ought to have exactly the same signification, and to be quite as proper, when joined to the latter substantive as the former; otherwise the ellipsis should not be admitted.

Sometimes the ellipsis is improperly applied to nouns of different numbers: as, 'A magnificent house and gardens.' In this case it is better to use another adjective: as, 'a magnificent house and fine gardens.'

4. The following is the ellipsis of the *pronoun*. 'I love and fear him:' that is, 'I love him, and I fear him.' 'My house and lands;' that is, 'my house and my lands.' In these instances the ellipsis may take place with propriety; but if we would be more express and emphatical, it must not be used: as, 'His friends and his foes.' 'My sons and my daughters.'

In some of the common forms of speech, the relative pronoun is usually omitted: as, 'This is the man they love;' instead of, 'this is the man *whom* they love.' 'These are the goods they bought;' for, 'these are the goods *which* they bought.'

In complex sentences, it is much better to have the relative pronoun expressed; as it is more proper to say, 'The posture in which I lay,' than, 'In the posture I lay:' 'The horse on which I rode, fell down;' than, 'The horse I rode, fell down.'

The antecedent and the relative connect the parts of a sentence together; and, to prevent obscurity and confusion, they should answer to each other with great exactness. 'We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen.' Here the ellipsis is manifestly improper, and ought to be supplied: as, 'We speak that *which* we do know, and testify that *which* we have seen.'

5. The ellipsis of the *verb* is used in the following instances. 'The man was old and crafty;' that is, 'the man was old, and the man was crafty.' 'She was young, and beautiful, and good;' that is, 'she was

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young, she was beautiful, and she was good.' 'Thou art poor, and wretched, and miserable, and blind, and naked.' If we would fill up the ellipsis in the last sentence, *thou art* ought to be repeated before each of the adjectives.

If, in such enumeration, we choose to point out one property above the rest, that property must be placed last, and the ellipsis supplied: as, 'She is young and beautiful, and she is good.'

'I went to see and hear him;' that is, 'I went to see him, and I went to hear him.' In this instance, there is not only an ellipsis of the governing verb, *I went*, but likewise of the sign of the infinitive mode, which is governed by it.

Do, *did*, *have*, *had*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *might*, and the rest of the auxiliaries of the compound tenses, are frequently used alone, to spare the repetition of the verb: as, 'He regards his word, but thou dost not:' i. e. 'dost not regard it.' 'We succeeded, but they did not;' 'did not succeed.' 'I have learned my task, but you have not;' 'have not learned.' 'They must, and they shall be punished;' that is, 'they must be punished.'

The auxiliary verbs are often very properly omitted before the principal verb: as, 'I have seen and heard him frequently;' not, '*I have* heard.' 'He will lose his estate, and incur reproach:' not, 'he *will* incur.' But when anything is emphatically expressed, or when opposition is denoted, this ellipsis should be avoided: as, 'I have seen, and I have heard him too;' 'He was admired, but he was not beloved.'

6. The ellipsis of the *adverb* is used in the following manner. 'He spoke and acted wisely;' that is, 'he spoke wisely, and he acted wisely.' 'Thrice I went and offered my service;' that is, 'thrice I went, and thrice I offered my service.'

7. The ellipsis of the *preposition*, as well as of the verb, is seen in the following instances: 'He went into the abbeys, halls, and public buildings;' that is, 'he went into the abbeys, he went into the halls, and he went into the public buildings.' 'He also went through all the streets, and lanes of the city;' that is, 'through all

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the streets, and through all the lanes,' &c. 'He spoke to every man and woman there,' that is, 'to every man and to every woman.' 'This day, next month, last year;' that is, 'on this day, in the next month, in the last year.' 'The Lord do that which seemeth him good;' that is, 'which seemeth *to* him.'

8. The ellipsis of the *conjunction* is as follows: 'They confess the power, wisdom, goodness, and love, of their Creator;' i. e. 'the power, and wisdom, and goodness, and love of,' &c. 'Though I love him, I do not flatter him,' that is, 'though I love him, *yet* I do not flatter him.'

There is a very common ellipsis of the conjunction *that:* as, 'He told me he would proceed immediately;' 'I desired he would not be too hasty;' 'I fear it comes too much from the heart;' instead of, 'He told me *that* he would proceed immediately:' 'I desired *that* he would not be too hasty:' 'I fear *that* it comes too much from the heart.'—This ellipsis is tolerable in conversation, and in epistolary writing: but it should be sparingly indulged, in every other species of composition. The French do not use this mode of expression: they avoid the ellipsis on such occasions.

9. The ellipsis of the *interjection* is not very common: it, however, is sometimes used: as, 'Oh! pity and shame!' that is, 'Oh pity! Oh shame!'

As the ellipsis occurs in almost every sentence in the English language, numerous examples of it might be given: but only a few more can be admitted here.

In the following instance, there is a very considerable one: 'He will often argue, that if this part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from one nation; and if another, from another;' that is, 'he will often argue, that if this part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from one nation, and if another part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from another nation.'

Sometimes a considerable part of a sentence is properly omitted, when we presume that the nominative case and its whole regimen may be readily understood: as, 'Nature has given to animals one time to act, and anoth-

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er to rest :' instead of saying : ' nature has given to animals one time to act, and nature has given to animals another time to rest.'

The following instances, though short, contain much of the ellipsis ; ' Wo is me ;' i. e. ' wo is to me.' ' To let blood ;' i. e. ' to let out blood.' ' To let down ;' i. e. ' to let it fall or slide down.' ' To walk a mile ;' i. e. ' to walk through the space of a mile.' ' To sleep all night ;' i. e. ' to sleep through all the night.' ' To go a fishing ;' ' To go a hunting ;' i. e. ' to go on a fishing voyage or business ;' ' to go on a hunting party.' ' I dine at two o'clock ;' i. e. ' at two of the clock.' ' By sea, by land, on shore ;' i. e. ' by the sea, by the land, on the shore.'

It is very frequent, when the word *notwithstanding* agrees with a number of words, or with an entire clause, to omit the whole except this word : and in this use of *notwithstanding*, we have a striking proof of the value of abbreviations in language. For example : ' Moses said, let no man leave of it till the morning : *notwithstanding*, they hearkened not unto him.' Here *notwithstanding* appears without the clause to which it belongs : and to complete the sense in words, it would be necessary to repeat the whole preceding clause, or the substance of it.—' Moses said, let no man leave of it till the morning. *Notwithstanding this command of Moses*, or, *notwithstanding Moses said that which has been recited*, they hearkened not unto Moses.'—' Folly meets with success in this world : but it is true *notwithstanding*, that it labors under disadvantages.' This passage, at length, would read thus : ' Folly meets with success in the world : but it is true, *notwithstanding folly meets with success in the world*, that it labors under disadvantages.'

It is not unusual to apply a pronoun, *this*, *that*, *which*, or *what*, to represent nearly the whole of a sentence : as, ' Bodies which have no taste, and no power of affecting the skin, may, notwithstanding *this*, act upon organs which are more delicate.' Here *this* stands for, ' *they have no taste, and no power to affect the skin.*'

In the following example, the pronoun and participle are omitted : ' Conscious of his own weight and importance, the aid of others was not solicited.' Here the

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words *he being* are understood ; that is, 'He being conscious of his own weight and importance.' This clause constitutes the case absolute, or, the nominative absolute ; which is not so obvious before, as after, the ellipsis is supplied.

10. The examples that follow are produced to show the impropriety of an ellipsis in some particular cases. 'The land was always possessed, during pleasure, by those intrusted with the command ;' it should be, 'those *persons* intrusted ;' or, 'those *who were* intrusted.' 'If he had read further, he would have found several of his objections might have been spared ;' that is, 'he would have found *that* several of his objections,' &c. 'There is nothing men are more deficient in, than knowing their own characters.' It ought to be, 'nothing *in which* men ;' and, 'than *in* knowing.' 'I scarcely know any part of natural philosophy would yield more variety and use ;' it should be, '*which* would yield,' &c. 'In the temper of mind he was then ;' i. e. '*in which* he then was.' 'The little satisfaction and consistency, to be found in most of the systems of divinity I have met with, made me betake myself to the sole reading of the Scriptures :' it ought to be, '*which are* to be found,' and, '*which* I have met with.' 'He desired they might go to the altar together, and jointly return their thanks to whom only they were due ;' i. e. '*to him* to whom,' &c

RULE IV.

To determine the case of a noun, or pronoun, when it follows the conjunctions but, than, *and* as, *attend well to the sense, and supply the ellipsis* : as,

'Thou art wiser than I ;' that is, 'than I am.' 'They loved him more than me ;' i. e. 'more than they loved me.' 'The sentiment is well expressed by Plato, but much better by Solomon than him;' that is, 'than it is expressed by him.'

The propriety or impropriety of many phrases, in the preceding, as well as in some other forms, may be discovered, by supplying the words that are not expressed ; which will be evident from the following instances of erroneous construction. 'He can read better than me.'

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'He is as good as her.' 'Whether I be present or no.' 'Who did this? Me.' By supplying the words understood in each of these phrases, their impropriety and governing rule will appear: as, 'Better than I can read;' 'As good as she is;' 'Present or not present;' 'I did it.'

By not attending to this rule, many errors have been committed: a number of which are subjoined, for further caution and direction. 'Thou art a much greater loser than me by his death.' 'She suffers hourly more than me.' 'We contributed a third more than the Dutch, who were obliged to the same proportion more than us.' 'King Charles, and more than him, the duke and the popish faction, were at liberty to form new schemes.' 'The drift of all his sermons was, to prepare the Jews for the reception of a prophet mightier than him, and whose shoes he was not worthy to bear.' 'It was not the work of so eminent an author, as him to whom it was first imputed.' 'A stone is heavy, and the sand is weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both.' 'If the king give us leave, we may perform the office as well as them that do.' In these passages it ought to be, *I, we, he, they,* respectively.

When the relative *who* immediately follows *than,* it must be in the objective case: as, 'Alfred, *than whom,* a greater king never reigned,' &c. 'Beelzebub, *than whom,* Satan excepted, none higher sat,' &c. It is remarkable that in such instances, if the personal pronoun were used, it would be in the nominative case: as, 'A greater king never reigned *than he,*' that is, '*than he was.*' 'Beelzebub, *than he,*' &c.; that is, '*than he sat.*' The phrase *than whom,* is, however, avoided by the best modern writers.

Exercises on Rule IV.

In some respects, we have had as many advantages as them; but in the article of a good library, they have had a greater privilege than us.

The undertaking was much better executed by his brother than he.

They are much greater gainers than me by this unexpected event.

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They know how to write as well as him ; but he is a much better grammarian than them.

Though she is not so learned as him, she is as much beloved and respected.

These people, though they possess more shining qualities, are not so proud as him, nor so vain as her.

Who betrayed her companion ? Not me.

Who revealed the secrets he ought to have concealed? Not him.

Who related falsehoods to screen herself, and to bring an odium upon others ? not me ; it was her.

There is but one in fault, and that is me.

Whether he will be learned or no, must depend on his application.

Charles XII. of Sweden, than who a more courageous person never lived, appears to have been destitute of the tender sensibilities of nature.

Salmasius (a more learned man than him has seldom appeared) was not happy at the close of life.

RULE V.

All the parts of a sentence should correspond to each other; and a regular and dependent construction, throughout, should be observed.

The following sentence therefore is inaccurate ; 'He was more beloved, but not so much admired, as his brother.' It should be, 'He was more beloved than his brother, but not so much admired.'

The first example under this rule, presents a most irregular construction, namely, 'He was more beloved *as* his brother.' The words *more* and *so much*, are very improperly stated as having the same regimen. In correcting such sentences, it is not necessary to supply the latter ellipsis of the corrected sentence, by saying, 'but not so much admired *as his brother was* ;' because the ellipsis cannot lead to any discordant or improper construction, and the supply would often be harsh or inelegant.

As this fifth Rule comprehends all the preceding rules, it may, at the first view, appear to be too general to be useful. But by ranging under it a number of sentences peculiarly constructed, we shall perceive,

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that it is calculated to ascertain the true grammatical construction of many modes of expression, which none of the particular rules can sufficiently explain.

'This dedication may serve for almost any book, that has, is, or shall be published.' It ought to be, 'that has been, or shall be published.' 'He was guided by interests always different, sometimes contrary to, those of the community;' 'different *from*;' or, 'always different from those of the community, and sometimes contrary to them.' 'Will it be urged that these books are as old, or even older than tradition?' The words, 'as old,' and 'older,' cannot have a common regimen; it should be, 'as old as tradition, or even older.' 'It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or at least may not acquire;' 'or which, at least, they may not acquire.' 'The court of chancery frequently mitigates and breaks the teeth of the common law.' In this construction, the first verb is said 'to mitigate the teeth of the common law,' which is an evident solecism. 'Mitigates the common law, and breaks the teeth of it,' would have been grammatical.

'They presently grow into good humor, and good language towards the crown;' 'grow into good language,' is very improper. 'There is never wanting a set of evil instruments, who either out of mad zeal, private hatred, or filthy lucre, are always ready,' &c. We say properly, 'A man acts out of mad zeal,' or, 'out of private hatred,' but we cannot say, if we would speak English, 'he *acts* out of filthy lucre.' 'To double her kindness and caresses of me:' the word 'kindness' requires to be followed by either *to* or *for*, and cannot be construed with the preposition *of*. 'Never was man so teased or suffered half the uneasiness, as I have done this evening:' the first and third clauses, viz. 'Never was man so teased, as I have done this evening,' cannot be joined without an impropriety; and to connect the second and third, the word *that* must be substituted for *as*; 'Or suffered half the uneasiness that I have done;' or else, 'half so much uneasiness as I have suffered.'

The first part of the following sentence abounds with adverbs, and those such as are hardly consistent with one another: '*How much soever* the reformation of this

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degenerate age is *almost utterly* to be despaired of, we may yet have a more comfortable prospect of future times.' The sentence would be more correct in the following form : ' *Though* the reformation of this degenerate age is *nearly* to be despaired of,' &c.

' Oh ! shut not up my soul with the sinners, nor my life with the blood-thirsty ; in whose hands is wickedness, and *their* right hand is full of gifts.' As the passage, introduced by the copulative conjunction *and*, was not intended as a continuation of the principal and independent part of the sentence, but of the dependent part, the relative *whose* should have been used instead of the possessive *their ;* viz. ' and *whose* right hand is full of gifts.'

' Eye hath not seen, nor ear heard, neither *have* entered into the heart of man, the things which God hath prepared for them that love him.' There seems to be an impropriety in this sentence, in which the same noun serves in a double capacity, performing at the same time the offices both of the nominative and objective cases. ' Neither *hath* it entered into the heart of man, to conceive the things,' &c. would have been regular.

' We have the power of retaining, altering, and compounding those images which we have once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision.' It is very proper to say, ' altering and compounding those images which we have once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision ;' but we can with no propriety say, ' retaining them into all the varieties ;' and yet, according to the manner in which the words are ranged, this construction is unavoidable : for, ' retaining, altering, and compounding,' are participles, each of which equally refers to and governs the subsequent noun, *those images ;* and that noun again is necessarily connected with the following preposition, *into.* The construction might easily have been rectified, by disjoining the participle *retaining* from the other two participles, in this way : ' We have the power of retaining those images which we have once received, and of altering and compounding them into all the varieties of picture and vision ;' or, perhaps better thus : ' We have the power of retaining, altering, and compounding those images

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which we have once received, and of forming them into all the varieties of picture and vision.'

Exercises on Rule V.

Several alterations and additions have been made to the work.

The first proposal was essentially different, and inferior to the second.

He is more bold and active, but not so wise and studious as his companion.

Thou hearest the sound of the wind, but thou canst not tell whence it cometh, and whither it goeth.

Neither has he, nor any other persons, suspected so much dissimulation.

The court of France or England, was to be the umpire.

In the reign of Henry II. all foreign commodities were plenty in England.

There is no talent so useful towards success in business, or which puts men more out of the reach of accidents, than that quality generally possessed by persons of cool temper, and is in common language called discretion.

The first project was to shorten discourse, by cutting polysyllables into one.

I shall do all I can to persuade others to take the same measures for their cure which I have.

The greatest masters of critical learning differ among one another.

Micaiah said, 'If thou certainly return in peace, then hath not the Lord spoken by me.'

I do not suppose, that we Britons want a genius, more than the rest of our neighbours.

The deaf man, whose ears were opened, and his tongue loosened, doubtless glorified the great physician.

Groves, fields, and meadows, are, at any season of the year, pleasant to look upon; but never so much as in the opening of the spring.

The multitude rebuked them, because they should hold their peace.

The intentions of some of these philosophers, nay, of many, might and probably were good.

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It is an unanswerable argument of a very refined age, the wonderful civilities that have passed between the nation of authors and that of readers.

It was an unsuccessful undertaking; which, although it has failed, is no objection at all to an enterprise so well concerted.

The reward is his due, and it has already, or will hereafter, be given to him.

By intercourse with wise and experienced persons, who know the world, we may improve and rub off the rust of a private and retired education.

Sincerity is as valuable, and even more valuable, than knowledge.

No person was ever so perplexed, or sustained the mortifications, as he has done to day.

The Romans gave, not only the freedom of the city, but capacity for employments, to several towns, in Gaul, Spain and Germany.

Such writers have no other standard on which to form themselves, except what chances to be fashionable and popular.

Whatever we do secretly, shall be displayed and heard in the clearest light.

To the happiness of possessing a person of such uncommon merit, Boethius soon had the satisfaction of obtaining the highest honor his country could bestow.

IMPROPRIETIES OF SPEECH TO BE AVOIDED.

The following improprieties in language occur more or less frequently, though for the most part in conversation, in different parts of the United States. They are here arranged and exhibited, that they may be avoided.

TO ADMIRE, in the sense of to be pleased; as, 'I should *admire* to go;' 'I should *admire* to be present,' &c.

AN'T, CAN'T, SHAN'T, DON'T, &c. for am not, cannot, shall not, &c.

'ARY ONE, for either.

AWFUL, for disagreeable, frightful, &c. as, an '*awful* wind, an *awful* hole, an *awful* face,' &c.

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AWFULLY, for badly, wickedly; as, 'Her child behaved *awfully*.'

BALANCE, for remainder; as, 'I have paid my part, and you must pay the *balance*.'

BE, for am, are, &c. as, '*Be* you going?' 'I *be*'

BREACHY, for unruly. 'The oxen are *breachy*.'

CALCULATE, for intend. 'I *calculate* to go.'

CHIRK, for comfortable; as, 'She was sick yesterday, but is *chirk* to-day.'

CHORE, for char, or small job

CHUNK, CHUNKY, CHUNKED. Low, unauthorized words.

CLEVER, for honest; as, 'He is not very intelligent, but very *clever*.'

CLEVERLY, for in good health; as, 'How do you do?' *Cleverly*, I thank you.'

COMPOSUIST, for writer, composer.

To CONDUCT, in the sense of a neuter verb.

To CONVENE, for to be convenient; as, 'The house does not *convene* us.'

CROCK, CROCKED, for black, blacked; smut, smutted.

CURIOUS, for excellent; as, 'This is *curious* cider.'

DROUTH, for drought.

EXPECT, in the sense of believe, think, presume; as, 'I *expect* there was a meeting;' 'I *expect* he went yesterday.' We expect things *to come*, not things *past*.

To FALL, for to fell; as, 'You *fall* this tree, and I will *fall* that.'

FROUGHY, for rancid, fetid, &c.

GUARDEEN, for guardian.

GUESS, for suppose, believe, think. We should never *guess* about things which we well know.

HAD RATHER, for should or would rather; as, 'I *had* rather go.' *Had go* is a singular combination.

HAVE GOT, to express necessity; as, 'I *have got* to do it,' for 'I must do it.'

HEFT, for weight. 'What's the *heft*?'

HEFT, for lift; as, 'Do *heft* this stone.'

HET, for heated. 'The iron was well *het*.

HOUSEN, for houses; as, 'How many *housen* are there in Worcester?'

ING, a very common termination, pronounced *In*; as, *Cunnin*, *comin*, *mornin*, *workin*, &c.

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JAG, for load. 'We got in four *jags* yesterday.'

JEST, for just. 'This is *jest* what I expected.'

KEDGE, for comfortable. 'I have been very ill, but am *kedge* now.'

LAY, for lie; as, 'I will *lay* down and rest me for an hour.'

LENGTHY, for long. We might as properly say *strengthy* for strong.

MAD, for angry. Mad means disordered in mind, deranged.

MIGHTY, for very. 'The child has been *mighty* good.' 'It's *mighty* cold.'

MUSICAL, for humorous, noisy; as, 'John is a *musical* fellow.'

NARY ONE, for neither.

NEVER SO MUCH, for ever so much.

NICELY, for in good health; as, 'How does your mother?' '*Nicely*, I thank you.'

NO, for not. 'You may believe me, or *no*.'

NOWAYS, for nowise.

OTHERWAYS, for otherwise.

HAD OUGHT, HADN'T OUGHT, DON'T OUGHT, &c. for ought and ought not.

PEEK, for peep; and PEEKING for peeping.

PERK, for brisk, lively. 'The child is very *perk* to-day.'

POORLY, for ill. 'I feel very *poorly*, I assure you.'

TO PROGRESS, for to make progress, to advance.

TO RECKON, for suppose, believe, think. 'I *reckon* I shall be there.'

SAT, for set; as, 'He *sat* out on his journey yesterday.'

SAUCE, for vegetables.

SEE, for saw. 'I *see* you do it.' 'I *see* you when you went out.'

SICH, for such.

SIGHT, for great number, or quantity. 'What a *sight* of men!'

SINGULAR NUMBER, for the plural. 'The stick is twenty *foot* long.' 'The pig weighs forty *pound*.' 'He owes two *million* of dollars.'

SPAN, for pair; as, 'A *span* of horses.'

SPELL, for term, duration, &c. as, 'A bad *spell* of weather.'

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THAT 'ARE, for that ; as, ' What book is *that 'are*?'

THIS 'ERE, for this ; as, ' *This 'ere* is mine.'

THEM, for those ; as, ' See *them* pigeons.' ' Give me *them* books.'

UGLY, for ill tempered. Ugly is the opposite of handsome. A woman may be very *ugly*, and still very *amiable*.

FROM WHENCE, for whence. The *from*, in this connexion, is superfluous.

WILT, for wither. ' The flower *wilted* and died.'

PROSODY.

PROSODY, the last part of Grammar, teaches the true pronunciation of words : comprising ACCENT, QUANTITY, EMPHASIS, PAUSE, and TONE ; and the laws of VERSIFICATION.

ACCENT is the laying of a peculiar stress of the voice, on a certain letter or syllable in a word, that it may be better heard than the rest, or distinguished from them : as, in the word *presume*, the stress of the voice must be on the letter *u*, and second syllable, *sume*, which take the accent.

Every word in our language, of more than one syllable, has one of them distinguished from the rest in this manner : and some writers assert, that every monosyllable of two or more letters, has one of its letters thus distinguished.

Accent is either principal or secondary. The principal accent is that which necessarily distinguishes one syllable in a word from the rest. The secondary accent is that stress, which we may occasionally place upon another syllable, besides that which has the principal accent, in order to pronounce every part of the word more distinctly, forcibly, and harmoniously.

Accent seems to be regulated, in a great measure, by etymology. In words from the Saxon, the accent is generally on the root : in words from the learned languages, it is generally on the termination ; and if to

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these we add the different accent we lay on some words, to distinguish them from others, we seem to have the three great principles of accentuation; namely, the *radical*, the *terminational*, and the *distinctive*. The radical: as, 'Lóve, lóvely, lóveliness;' the terminational: as, 'Hármony, harmónious;' the distinctive: as, 'Cónvert, to convért.'

The QUANTITY of a syllable, is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. It is considered as LONG or SHORT.

A vowel or syllable, is long, when the accent is on the vowel; which occasions it to be slowly joined in pronunciation with the following letters: as, 'Fāll, bāle, mōōd, hōūse, fēature.'

A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant; which occasions the vowel to be quickly joined to the succeeding letter; as, 'ănt, bŏnnĕt, hŭngĕr.'

A long syllable generally requires double the time of a short one in pronouncing it: thus, 'Māte,' and 'Nōte' should be pronounced as slowly again as 'Măt' and 'Nŏt.'

By EMPHASIS is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words on which we design to lay particular stress, and to show how they affect the rest of the sentence. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

On the right management of the emphasis depends the life of pronunciation. If no emphasis be placed on any words, not only will discourse be rendered heavy and lifeless, but the meaning often left ambiguous.

If the emphasis be placed wrong, we shall pervert and confound the meaning wholly.

To give a common instance: such a simple question as this, 'Do you ride to town to-day?' is capable of no fewer than four different acceptations, according as the emphasis is differently placed on the words.

If it be pronounced thus: 'Do *you* ride to town to day?' the answer may naturally be, 'No, we send a servant in our stead.'

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If thus: 'Do you *ride* to town to-day?' answer, 'No, we intend to walk.'

'Do you ride *to town* to-day?' 'No, we ride into the country.'

'Do you ride to town *to-day*?' 'No, but we shall to-morrow.'

In like manner, in solemn discourse, the whole force and beauty of an expression often depend on the emphatic word; and we may present to the hearers quite different views of the sentiment, by placing the emphasis differently. In the following words of our Saviour, observe in what different lights the thought is placed, according as the words are pronounced.

'Judas, betrayest thou the Son of man with a kiss?' '*Betrayest* thou,' makes the reproach turn on the infamy of treachery. 'Betrayest *thou*,' makes it rest upon Judas's connexion with his master. 'Betrayest thou *the Son of man*,' rests it upon our Saviour's personal character and eminence. 'Betrayest thou the Son of man *with a kiss*?' turns it upon his prostituting the signal of peace and friendship, to the purpose of destruction.

Emphasis is said by some to consist of two kinds, the simple, and the complex emphasis. Simple, when it serves to point out only the plain meaning of any proposition: complex, when, besides the meaning, it marks also some affection or emotion of the mind; or gives a meaning to words, which they would not have in their usual acceptation. In the former case, emphasis is scarcely more than a stronger accent, with little or no change of tone; when it is complex, besides force, there is always superadded a manifest change of tone.

Emphasis, besides its other offices, is the great regulator of quantity. Though the quantity of our syllables is fixed, in words separately pronounced, yet it is mutable, when these words are ranged in sentences; the long being changed into short, the short into long, according to the importance of the words with regard to meaning: and as it is by emphasis only, that the meaning can be pointed out, emphasis must be the regulator of the quantity.

Emphasis changes, not only the quantity of words and syllables, but also, in particular cases, the seat of the ac-

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cent. This is demonstrable from the following examples; 'He shall *ín*crease, but I shall *dé*crease.' 'There *is* a difference between giving and *fór*giving.' 'In this species of composition *plaú*sibility is much more essential than *pró*bability.' In these examples, the emphasis requires the accent to be placed on syllables, to which it does not commonly belong.

In order to acquire the proper management of the emphasis, the great rule, and indeed the only rule, possible to be given, is, that the speaker or reader study to attain a just conception of the force and spirit of the sentiments which he is to pronounce. For to lay the emphasis with exact propriety, is a constant exercise of good sense and attention. It is far from being an inconsiderable attainment. It is one of the greatest trials of a true and just taste, and must arise from feeling delicately ourselves, and from judging accurately, of what is fittest to strike the feelings of others.

There is one error, against which it is particularly proper to caution the learner; namely, that of multiplying emphatical words too much. It is only by a prudent reserve in the use of them, that we can give them any weight. If they recur too often; if a speaker or reader attempts to render everything which he expresses of high importance, by a multitude of strong emphasis, we soon learn to pay little regard to them. To crowd every sentence with emphatical words, is like crowding all the pages of a book with Italic characters, which, as to effect, is just the same as to use no such distinctions at all.

Pauses or rests, in speaking and reading, are a total cessation of the voice during a perceptible, and, in many cases, a measurable space of time.

There are two kinds of pauses: first, emphatical pauses; and next, such as mark the distinctions of the sense. An emphatical pause is made, after something has been said of peculiar moment, and on which we desire to fix the hearer's attention. Sometimes before such a thing is said, we usher it in with a pause of this nature. Such pauses have the same effect as a strong emphasis; and are subject to the same rules; especially

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to the caution just now given, of not repeating them too frequently. For as they excite uncommon attention, and of course raise expectation, if the importance of the matter is not fully answerable to such expectation, they occasion disappointment and disgust.

But the most frequent and the principal use of pauses, is, to mark the divisions of the sense, and at the same time to allow the speaker to draw his breath; and the proper and delicate adjustment of such pauses, is one of the most nice and difficult articles of delivery.

Pauses in reading and public discourse, must be formed upon the manner in which we utter ourselves in ordinary, sensible conversation; and not upon the stiff artificial manner which we acquire, from reading books according to the common punctuation.

To render pauses pleasing and expressive, they must not only be made in the right place, but also accompanied with a proper tone of voice, by which the nature of these pauses is intimated, much more than by the length of them, which can seldom be exactly measured.

TONES are different both from emphasis and pauses; consisting in the modulation of the voice, the notes or variations of sound which we employ, in the expression of our sentiments.

VERSIFICATION is the arrangement of a certain number and variety of syllables, according to certain laws.

Rhyme is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse, to the last sound or syllable of another. Feet and pauses are the constituent parts of verse.

All feet used in poetry consist either of two, or of three syllables; and are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three, as follows:

DISSYLLABLE.		TRISYLLABLE.	
A Trochee	– ∪	A Dactyl	– ∪ ∪
An Iambus	∪ –	An Amphibrach	∪ – ∪
A Spondee	– –	An Anapæst	∪ ∪ –
A Pyrrhic	∪ ∪	A Tribrach	∪ ∪ ∪

A Trochee has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented: as, 'Hāteful, pēttish.'

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An Iambus has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented: as, 'Bĕtrāy, consíst.'

A Spondee has both the words or syllables accented: as, 'The pāle mōōn.'

A Pyrrhic has both the words or syllables unaccented: as, 'Ŏn thĕ tall tree.'

A Dactyl has the first syllable accented, and the two latter unaccented: as, 'Lābŏurĕr, póssible.'

An Amphibrach has the first and last syllables unaccented: and the middle one accented: as, 'Dĕlīghtfŭl, doméstic.'

An Anapæst has the two first syllables unaccented, and the last accented: as, 'Cŏntrăvēne, acquiésce.'

A Tribrach has all its syllables unaccented: as, 'Nūmĕrăblĕ, cŏnquerable.'

There are two sorts of POETICAL PAUSES, one for sense, and one for melody, perfectly distinct from each other. The former may be called *sentential*, the latter, *harmonic* pauses.

The sentential pauses are those which are known to us by the name of stops, and which have names given them; as the comma, semicolon, colon, and period.

The harmonic pauses may be subdivided into the *final* pause and the *cæsural* pause. These sometimes coincide with the sentential pause, and sometimes have an independent state, that is, exist where there is no stop in the sense.

The final pause takes place at the end of the line, closes the verse, and marks the measure: the cæsural divides it into equal or unequal parts.

Melody, harmony, and expression, are the three great objects of poetic numbers. By melody, is meant, a pleasing effect produced on the ear, from an apt arrangement of the constituent parts of verse, according to the laws of measure and movement. By harmony, an effect produced by an action of the mind, in comparing the different members of a verse with each other, and perceiving a due and beautiful proportion between them. By expression, such a choice and arrangement of the constituent parts of verse, as serve to enforce and illustrate the thought or the sentiment.

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APPENDIX.

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to mark the different pauses, which the sense, and an accurate pronunciation, require.

An *adjunct* or *imperfect phrase* is a part of a sentence, which contains no assertion, and does not amount to a proposition; as, '*Therefore; desirous of praise; in the pursuit of riches.*'

A *simple sentence* contains one subject, or nominative case, and one verb to agree with it, either expressed or understood; as, 'Exercise promotes health.'

A *compound sentence* contains more than one nominative and verb, expressed or understood; or it has adjuncts so connected with it, that it may be resolved into two or more simple sentences; as, 'Examine well the counsel, that favors your desires. They have sacrificed their health and *fortune* at the shrine of vanity, *pride*, and *extravagance*.'

The pauses, the use of which requires to be more particularly explained, are the *comma*, the *semicolon*, the *colon*, the *period*, with the notes of *interrogation* and *exclamation*.

RULE I.

The parts of a simple sentence must not be separated by a comma.

EXCEPTIONS.

1. An adjunct of considerable length and importance, and especially if it does not stand in its most natural or-

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der, may be separated by a comma on both sides; as, 'Nor, *even on this affecting occasion*, should I presume to deviate.'

2. A simple sentence, when long, and when the nominative case is accompanied with inseparable adjuncts, may admit of a pause immediately before the verb; as, 'To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character.'

3. The nominative case independent, the case absolute, the infinitive absolute, and nouns in apposition when the latter is attended by inseparable adjuncts, must be separated by commas; as, 'Do, *Trim*, said my uncle Toby. *His father dying*, he succeeded to the estate. *To confess the truth*, I was in fault. Death, *the King of Terrors*, chose a prime minister.'

4. When the verb of a simple sentence, contained within a compound one, is understood, a comma may often be inserted; as, 'From law arises security; from *security, curiosity*; from *curiosity, knowledge*.'

5. The words *may, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, lastly, in short*, &c. must generally be separated by commas.

RULE II.

A compound sentence must be resolved into simple ones, and separated by commas; as, 'The decay, the waste, the dissolution of plants may affect our spirits, and suggest a train of serious reflections.'

EXCEPTIONS.

1. Two words of the same kind, immediately connected by a conjunction, must not be separated; but if there be more than two, they must all be separated, unless connected in pairs—in which case the pairs only must be separated; as, 'Some men sin deliberately and presumptuously. The decease of parents, friends, and companions should promote our improvement. There is a natural difference between merit and demerit, virtue and vice, wisdom and folly.'

2. In comparative sentences, and indeed in compound sentences generally, where the simple members are short and closely connected, the comma is better omit-

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ted; as, 'No preacher is so successful as time. Wisdom is better than riches.'

3. In sentences connected by *what*, and where the relative is understood, the comma is omitted; as, 'Eat what is set before you. Value duly the opportunities you enjoy.'

RULE III.

When a pause longer than a comma is required, and yet the sense is incomplete, a semicolon should be used.

RULE IV.

The colon is used to divide those members of a sentence which are too little connected for the semicolon, and yet not sufficiently independent of each other to constitute them distinct sentences

RULE V.

A sentence, making complete sense in itself, requires a period after it

RULE VI.

Interrogative sentences require a note of interrogation, and those expressing wonder or surprise a note of admiration, after them.

In applying the foregoing Rules and Exceptions, particularly those which relate to the comma, great regard must be had to the length of clauses, and to the manner and degree of their connexion one with another.

Other marks or characters are occasionally employed in writing; but the use of them is sufficiently explained in the spelling-books.

QUESTIONS.

What is Punctuation?—What is an adjunct, or imperfect phrase?—What is a simple sentence?—What is a compound sentence?—Repeat the first Rule.—What is the first Exception to this Rule?—In the example under this Exception, which is the adjunct?—What is the second Exception?—In the example following it, why is there a comma after *censure*? What is the third excep-

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tion ?—In the examples following, why is *Trim* separated by commas ?—Why are there commas after *dying* ? and after *truth* ?—Why is the phrase '*King of Terrors*,' separated by commas ?—Repeat the fourth Exception.—In the example following, why is there a comma after *security* ? and after *curiosity* ?—What is the fifth Exception ? —What is the second general Rule ?—In the example under it, why are there commas after decay ; and waste ; and spirits ?—Repeat the first Exception to Rule second.—In the first example under this Exception, why is there not a comma ?—In the next example, why is there a comma after parents ; and friends ?—And in the next, why are there commas after demerit ; and vice ?—What is the second Exception to this Rule ?—In the examples under it, why are there no commas ?—What is the third Exception ?—Repeat the four remaining Rules.—To what must we have particular regard, in applying the foregoing Rules and Exceptions ?

EXERCISES.

The pupil should be required to point the following sentences, agreeably to the preceding Rules :—

COMMA.

The tutor by instruction and discipline lays the foundation of the pupil's future honor

Self-conceit presumption and obstinacy blast the prospect of many a youth

Deliberate slowly execute promptly

To live soberly righteously and piously comprehends the whole of our duty

The path of piety and virtue pursued with a firm and constant spirit will assuredly lead to happiness

Continue my dear child to make virtue thy principal study

Peace of mind being secured we may smile at misfortunes

He who is a stranger to industry may possess but he cannot enjoy

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Beware of those rash and dangerous connexions which may afterwards load thee with dishonor

SEMICOLON.

The path of truth is a plain and a safe path that of falsehood is a perplexing maze

Modesty is one of the chief ornaments of youth and has ever been esteemed a presage of rising merit

Heaven is the region of gentleness and friendship hell of fierceness and animosity

COLON.

Often is the smile of gayety assumed whilst the heart aches within though folly may laugh guilt will sting

There is no mortal truly wise and restless at the same time wisdom is the repose of minds

PERIOD.

We ruin the happiness of life when we attempt to raise it too high a tolerable and comfortable state is all that we can propose to ourselves on earth peace and contentment not bliss nor transport are the full portion of man perfect joy is reserved for heaven

INTERROGATION AND EXCLAMATION.

To lie down on the pillow after a day spent in temperance in beneficence and in piety how sweet it is

We wait till to-morrow to be happy alas why not to-day shall we be younger are we sure we shall be healthier will our passions become feebler and our love of the world less

---

The preceding rules of Punctuation, prepared for the author's smaller compilation of grammar, are of course general, and by some may not be thought sufficient. For the satisfaction of such, the following system, taken from Mr. Murray's larger work, is subjoined.

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PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses which the sense, and an accurate pronunciation require.

The Comma represents the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, double that of the semicolon; and the Period, double that of the colon.

The precise quantity or duration of each pause cannot be defined; for it varies with the time of the whole. The same composition may be rehearsed in a quicker or a slower time; but the proportion between the pauses should be ever invariable.

In order more clearly to determine the proper application of the points, we must distinguish between an *imperfect phrase*, a *simple sentence*, and a *compound sentence*.

An imperfect phrase contains no assertion, or does not amount to a proposition or sentence: as, 'Therefore; in haste; studious of praise.'

A simple sentence has but one subject, and one finite verb, expressed or implied: as, 'Temperance preserves health.'

A compound sentence has more than one subject, or one finite verb, either expressed or understood; or it consists of two or more simple sentences connected together: as, 'Good nature mends and beautifies all objects;' 'Virtue refines the affections, but vice debases them.'

In a sentence, the subject and the verb, or either of them, may be accompanied with several adjuncts: as, the object, the end, the circumstance of time, place, manner, and the like: and the subject or verb may be either immediately connected with them, or mediately; that is, by being connected with something which is connected with some other, and so on, as, 'The mind, unoccupied with useful knowledge, becomes a magazine of trifles and follies.'

Members of sentences may be divided into simple and compound members.

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CHAPTER I.

OF THE COMMA.

The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence, which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

RULE I.

With respect to a simple sentence, the several words of which it consists have so near a relation to each other, that, in general, no points are requisite, except a full stop at the end of it; as, 'The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.' 'Every part of matter swarms with living creatures.'

A simple sentence, however, when it is a long one, and the nominative case is accompanied with inseparable adjuncts, may admit of a pause immediately before the verb: as, 'The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language.' 'To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character.'

RULE II.

When the connexion of different parts of a simple sentence, is interrupted by an imperfect phrase, a comma is usually introduced before the beginning, and at the end of this phrase: as, 'I remember, *with gratitude*, his goodness to me;' 'His work is, *in many respects*, very imperfect. It is, *therefore*, not much approved.' But when these interruptions are slight and unimportant, the comma is better omitted: as, 'Flattery is *certainly* pernicious:' 'There is *surely* a pleasure in beneficence.'

In the generality of compound sentences, there is frequent occasion for commas. This will appear from the following rules; some of which apply to simple, as well as to compound sentences.

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RULE III.

When two or more nouns occur in the same construction, they are parted by a comma: as, 'Reason, virtue, answer one great aim:' 'The husband, wife and children, suffered extremely:'* 'They took away their furniture, clothes, and stock in trade:' 'He is alternately supported by his father, his uncle, and his elder brother.'

From this rule there is mostly an exception, with regard to two nouns closely connected by a conjunction: as, 'Virtue *and* vice form a strong contrast to each other:' 'Libertines call religion bigotry *or* superstition:' 'There is a natural difference between merit *and* demerit, virtue *and* vice, wisdom *and* folly.' But if the parts connected are not short, a comma may be inserted, though the conjunction is expressed: as, 'Romances may be said to be miserable rhapsodies, *or* dangerous incentives to evil;' 'Intemperance destroys the strength of our bodies, *and* the vigor of our minds.'

RULE IV.

Two or more adjectives belonging to the same substantive, are likewise separated by commas: as, 'Plain, honest truth, wants no artificial covering:' 'David was a brave, wise, and pious man;' 'A woman, gentle, sensible, well-educated, and religious;' 'The most innocent pleasures are the sweetest, the most rational, the most affecting, and the most lasting.'

But two adjectives, immediately connected by a conjunction, are not separated by a comma: as, 'True worth is modest *and* retired;' 'Truth is fair *and* artless, simple *and* sincere, uniform *and* consistent.' 'We must be wise *or* foolish; there is no medium.'

* As a considerable pause in pronunciation is necessary between the last noun and the verb, a comma should be inserted to denote it. But as no pause is allowable between the last adjective and the noun, under Rule IV. the comma is there properly omitted.—*See Walker's Elements of Elocution.*

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RULE V.

Two or more verbs, having the same nominative case, and immediately following one another, are also separated by commas: as, 'Virtue supports in adversity, moderates in prosperity:' 'In a letter, we may advise, exhort, comfort, request, and discuss.'

Two verbs immediately connected by a conjunction, are an exception to the above rule: as, 'The study of natural history expands *and* elevates the mind;' 'Whether we eat *or* drink, labor *or* sleep, we should be moderate.'

Two or more participles are subject to a similar rule, and exception: as, 'A man, fearing, serving, and loving, his Creator:' 'He was happy in being loved, esteemed, and respected;' 'By being admired and flattered, we are often corrupted.'

RULE VI.

Two or more adverbs immediately succeeding one another, must be separated by commas: as, 'We are fearfully, wonderfully framed;' 'Success generally depends on acting prudently, steadily, and vigorously, in what we undertake.'

But when two adverbs are joined by a conjunction, they are not parted by the comma: as, 'Some men sin deliberately *and* presumptuously;' 'There is no middle state; we must live virtuously *or* viciously.'

RULE VII.

When participles are followed by something that depends on them, they are generally separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma: as, 'The king, *approving the plan*, put it in execution;' 'His talents, *formed for great enterprises*, could not fail of rendering him conspicuous;' 'All mankind compose one family, *assembled* under the eye of one common Father.'

RULE VIII.

When a conjunction is divided by a phrase or sentence from the verb to which it belongs, such intervening

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phrase has usually a comma at each extremity: as, 'They set out early, *and*, before the close of the day, arrived at the destined place.'

RULE IX.

Expressions in a direct address, are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas: as, '*My son*, give me thy heart;' 'I am obliged to you, *my friends*, for your many favors.'

RULE X.

The case or nominative absolute, and the infinitive mode absolute, are separated by commas from the body of the sentence: as, 'His father dying, he succeeded to the estate;' 'At length, their ministry performed, and race well run, they left the world in peace;' 'To confess the truth, I was much in fault.'

RULE XI.

Nouns in apposition, that is, nouns added to other nouns in the same case, by way of explication or illustration, when accompained with adjuncts, are set off by commas: as, 'Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal and knowledge;' 'The butterfly, child of the summer, flutters in the sun.'

But if such nouns are single, or only form a proper name, they are not divided: as, 'Paul the apostle;' 'The emperor Antoninus wrote an excellent book.'

RULE XII.

Simple members of sentences connected by comparatives, are, for the most part, distinguished by a comma: as, '*As* the hart panteth after the water brooks, *so* doth my soul pant after thee;' '*Better* is a dinner of herbs with love, *than* a stalled ox and hatred with it.'

If the members in comparative sentences are short, the comma is, in general, better omitted. as, 'How much *better* is it to get wisdom *than* gold!' 'Mankind act *oftener* from caprice *than* reason.'

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RULE XIII.

When words are placed in opposition to each other, or with some marked variety, they require to be distinguished by a comma: as,

'Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull;
Strong, without rage; without o'erflowing, full.'

'Good men, in this frail, imperfect state, are often found, not only in union *with*, but in opposition *to*, the views and conduct of one another.'

Sometimes, when the word with which the last preposition agrees, is single, it is better to omit the comma before it: as, 'Many states were in alliance *with*, and under the protection *of* Rome.'

The same rule and restriction must be applied, when two or more nouns refer to the same preposition: as, 'He was composed, both under the threatening, and at the approach, *of* a cruel and lingering death;' 'He was not only the king, but the father *of* his people.'

RULE XIV.

A remarkable expression, or a short observation, somewhat in manner of a quotation, may be properly marked with a comma: as, 'It hurts a man's pride to say, I do not know;' 'Plutarch calls lying, the vice of slaves.'

RULE XV.

Relative pronouns are connective words, and generally admit a comma before them: as, 'He preaches sublimely, *who* lives a sober, righteous, and pious life;' 'There is no charm in the female sex, *which* can supply the place of virtue.'

But when two members, or phrases, are closely connected by a relative, restraining the general notion of the antecedent to a particular sense, the comma should be omitted: as, 'Self-denial is the sacrifice which virtue must make;' 'A man who is of a detracting spirit, will misconstrue the most innocent words that can be put together.' In the latter example, the assertion is not of 'a man in general,' but of 'a man who is of a

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detracting spirit;' and therefore they should not be separated.

The fifteenth rule applies equally to cases in which the relative is not expressed, but understood: as, 'It was from piety, warm and unaffected, that his morals derived strength.' 'This sentiment, habitual and strong, influenced his whole conduct.' In both of these examples, the relative and the verb *which was*, are understood.

RULE XVI.

A simple member of a sentence, contained within another, or following another, must be distinguished by the comma: as, 'to improve time, whilst we are blessed with health, will smooth the bed of sickness.' 'Very often, while we are complaining of the vanity, and the evils of human life, we make that vanity, and we increase those evils.'

If, however, the members succeeding each other, are very closely connected, the comma is unnecessary; as, 'Revelation tells us how we may attain happiness.'

When a verb in the infinitive mode follows its governing verb, with several words between them, those words should generally have a comma at the end of them: as, 'It ill becomes good and wise men, to oppose and degrade one another.'

Several verbs in the infinitive mode, having a common dependence, and succeeding one another, are also divided by commas: as, 'To relieve the indigent, to comfort the afflicted, to protect the innocent, to reward the deserving, are humane and noble employments.'

RULE XVII.

When the verb *to be* is followed by a verb in the infinitive, which, by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb, by a comma: as, 'The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men.' 'The first and most obvious remedy against the infection, is, to withdraw from all association with bad men.'

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RULE XVIII.

When adjuncts or circumstances are of importance, and often when the natural order of them is inverted, they may be set off by commas: as, 'Virtue must be formed and supported, not by unfrequent acts, but by daily and repeated exertions.' 'Vices, like shadows, towards the evening of life, grow great and monstrous.' 'Our interests are interwoven by threads innumerable;' 'By threads innumerable, our interests are interwoven.'

RULE XIX.

Where a verb is understood, a comma may often be properly introduced. This is a general rule, which, besides comprising some of the preceding rules, will apply to many cases not determined by any of them: as, 'From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge.' In this example, the verb 'arises' is understood before 'curiosity' and 'knowledge;' at which words a considerable pause is necessary.

RULE XX.

The words, *nay*, *so*, *hence*, *again*, *first*, *secondly*, *formerly*, *now*, *lastly*, *once more*, *above all*, *on the contrary*, *in the next place*, *in short*, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must generally be separated from the context by a comma: as, 'Remember thy best and first friend; *Formerly*, the supporter of thy infancy, and the guide of thy childhood; *now*, the guardian of thy youth, and the hope of thy coming years.' 'He feared want, *hence*, he over-valued riches.' 'This conduct may heal the difference, *nay*, it may constantly prevent any in future.' '*Finally*, I shall only repeat what has been often justly said.' 'If the spring put forth no blossoms, in summer there will be no beauty, and in autumn no fruit; *so*, if youth be trifled away without improvement, riper years may be contemptible, and old age miserable.'

In many of the foregoing rules and examples, great regard must be paid to the length of the clauses, and

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the proportion which they bear to one another. An attention to the sense of any passage, and to the clear, easy communication of it, will, it is presumed, with the aid of the preceding rules, enable the learner to adjust the proper pauses, and the places for inserting the commas.

CHAPTER II

OF THE SEMICOLON.

The Semicolon is used for dividing a compound sentence into two or more parts, not so closely connected as those which are separated by a comma, nor yet so little dependent on each other, as those which are distinguished by a colon.

The Semicolon is sometimes used, when the preceding member of a sentence does not of itself give a complete sense, but depends on the following clause: and sometimes when the sense of that member would be complete without the concluding one: as in the following instances: 'As the desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in everything that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly.'

'Experience teaches us, that an entire retreat from worldly affairs, is not what religion requires; nor does it even enjoin a long retreat from them.'

'Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom.'

'Philosophers assert, that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries, of which we have not the least idea.'

'But all subsists by elemental strife;
And passions are the elements of life.'

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CHAPTER III.

OF THE COLON.

The Colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as separate, distinct sentences.

The colon may be properly applied in the three following cases.

1. When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but followed by some supplemental remark, or further illustration of the subject: as, 'Nature felt her inability to extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the Gospel reveals the plan of Divine interposition and aid.' 'Nature confesseth some atonement to be necessary: the gospel discovers that the necessary atonement is made.'

'Great works are performed, not by strength, but perseverance: yonder palace was raised by single stones; yet you see its height and spaciousness.'

> 'In faith and hope the world will disagree;
> But all mankind's concern is charity;
> All must be false that thwart this one great end;
> And, all of God, that bless mankind or mend.'

2. When a semicolon, or more than one, have preceded, and a still greater pause is necessary, in order to mark the connecting or concluding sentiment: as, 'As we perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not perceive it moving; and it appears that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of such insensible steps, are only perceivable by the distance.'

'A Divine Legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an almighty governor, stretching forth his arm to punish or reward; informing us of perpetual rest prepared hereafter for the righteous, and of indignation and wrath awaiting the wicked: these are the conside-

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rations which overawe the world, which support integrity, and check guilt.'

3. The Colon is commonly used when an example, a quotation, or a speech, is introduced: as, 'The Scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: 'God is love.' 'He was often heard to say: 'I have done with the world, and I am willing to leave it.'

The propriety of using a colon, or semicolon, is sometimes determined by the presence, or absence, of a conjunction: as, 'Do not flatter yourselves with the hope of perfect happiness: *for* there is no such thing in the world.'

'Where grows?—Where grows it not? If vain our toil,
We ought to blame the culture, not the soil:
Fixed to no spot is happiness sincere;
'Tis nowhere to be found, or everywhere.'

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE PERIOD.

When a sentence is complete and independent, and not connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a Period.

Some sentences are independent of each other, both in their sense and construction: as, 'Fear God. Honor the King. Have charity towards all men.' Others are independent only in their grammatical construction: as, 'The Supreme Being changes not, either in his desire to promote our happiness, or in the plan of his administration. One light always shines upon us from above. One clear and direct path is always pointed out to man.'

A period may sometimes be admitted between two sentences, though they are joined by a disjunctive or copulative conjunction. For the quality of the point does not always depend on the connective particle, but on the sense and structure of sentences: as, 'Recreations, though they may be of an innocent kind, require

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steady government to keep them within a due and limited province. But such as are of an irregular and vicious nature, are not to be governed, but to be banished from every well regulated mind.'

'He who lifts himself up to the observation and notice of the world, is, of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. For he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part.'

The period should be used after every abbreviated word: as 'M. S. P. S. N. B. A. D. O. S. N. S.' &c.

CHAPTER V.

OF THE DASH, NOTES OF INTERROGATION AND EXCLAMATION, AND THE PARENTHESIS.

SECTION I.

Of the Dash.

The Dash, though often used improperly by hasty and incoherent writers, may be introduced with propriety, where the sentence breaks off abruptly; where a significant pause is required; or where there is no unexpected turn in the sentiment: as, 'If thou art he, so much respected once—but, oh! how fallen! how degraded!' 'If acting conformably to the will of our Creator;—if promoting the welfare of mankind around us;—if securing our own happiness;—are objects of the highest moment;—then we are loudly called upon to cultivate and extend the great interests of religion and virtue.' A dash following a stop, denotes that the pause is to be greater than if the stop were alone; and when used by itself, requires a pause of such length as the sense alone can determine.

'Here lies the great———False marble, where?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here.'

'Whatever is, is right.—This world, 'tis true,
Was made for Cæsar—but for Titus too.'

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Besides the points which mark the pauses in discourse, there are characters, which denote a different modulation of voice, in correspondence to the sense. These are,

The point of INTERROGATION,	?
The point of EXCLAMATION,	!
The PARENTHESIS,	( )

SECTION II.

Of the Interrogatory point.

A note of Interrogation is used at the end of an interrogative sentence; that is, when a question is asked: as, 'Who will accompany me?' 'Shall we always be friends?'

Questions which a person asks himself in contemplation, ought to be terminated by points of interrogation: as, 'Who adorned the heavens with such exquisite beauty?' 'At whose command do the planets perform their constant revolutions?'

'To whom can riches give repute and trust,
Content or pleasure, but the good and just?'

A point of interrogation is improper after sentences which are not questions, but only expressions of admiration, or of some other emotion.

'How many instances have we of chastity and excellence in the fair sex!'

"With what prudence does the son of Sirach advise us, in the choice of our companions!'

A note of interrogation should not be employed, in cases where it is only said a question has been asked, and where the words are not used as a question. 'The Cyprians asked me why I wept.' To give this sentence the interrogative form, it should be expressed thus, 'The Cyprians said to me, 'Why dost thou weep?'

SECTION III.

Of the Exclamatory point.

The note of Exclamation is applied to expressions of sudden emotion, surprise, joy, grief, &c. and also to in-

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vocations or addresses: as, 'My friend! this conduct amazes me!' 'Bless the Lord, O my soul! and forget not all his benefits!'

'Oh! had we both our humble state maintained,
And safe in peace and poverty remained!'

'Hear me, O Lord! for thy loving kindness is great!'

It is difficult in some cases, to distinguish between an interrogative and exclamatory sentence: but a sentence, in which any wonder or admiration is expressed, and no answer either expected or implied, may be always properly terminated by a note of exclamation: as, 'How much vanity in the pursuits of men!' 'Who can sufficiently express the goodness of our Creator!' 'What is more amiable than virtue!'

The interrogation and exclamation points are indeterminate as to their quantity or time, and may be equivalent in that respect to a semicolon, a colon, or a period, as the sense may require. They mark an elevation of the voice.

The utility of the points of Interrogation and Exclamation, appears from the following examples, in which the meaning is signified and discriminated solely by the points.

'What condescension!'
'What condescension?'

'How great was the sacrifice!'
'How great was the sacrifice?'

SECTION IV.

Of the Parenthesis.

A Parenthesis is a clause containing some necessary information, or useful remark, introduced into the body of a sentence obliquely, and which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction; as,

'Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
Virtue alone is happiness below.

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'And was the ransom paid? It was; and paid
(What can exalt his bounty more?) for thee.'

'To gain a posthumous reputation, is to save four or five letters (for what is a name besides?) from oblivion.' 'Know ye not, brethren, (for I speak to them that know the law,) how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth?'

If the incidental clause is short, or perfectly coincides with the rest of the sentence, it is not proper to use the parenthetical characters. The following instances are therefore improper uses of the parenthesis. 'Speak you (who saw) his wonders in the deep.' 'Every planet (as the Creator has made nothing in vain) is most probably inhabited.' 'He found them asleep again; (for their eyes were heavy;) neither knew they what to answer him.'

The parenthesis generally marks a moderate depression of the voice, and may be accompanied with every point which the sense would require, if the parenthetical characters were omitted. It ought to terminate with the same kind of stop which the member has, that precedes it; and to contain that stop within the parenthetical marks. We must, however, except cases of interrogation and exclamation: as, 'While they wish to please, (and why should they not wish it?) they disdain dishonorable means.' 'It was represented by an analogy, (Oh, how inadequate!) which was borrowed from the religion of paganism.'

CHAPTER VI.

OF THE APOSTROPHE, CARET, &c.

There are other characters, which are frequently made use of in composition, and which may be explained in this place, viz.

An apostrophe, marked thus ' is used to abbreviate or

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shorten a word: as, '*'tis* for *it is*; *tho'* for *though*; *e'en* for *even*; *judg'd* for *judged*.' Its chief use is to show the genitive case of nouns: as, 'A man's property; a woman's ornament.'

A Caret marked thus ^ is placed where some word or letter happens to be left out in writing, and which is inserted over the line. This mark is also called a circumflex, when placed over a particular vowel, to denote a long syllable: as, 'Euphrâtes.'

A Hyphen, marked thus - is employed in connecting compound words: as, 'Lap-dog, tea-pot, pre-existence, self-love, to-morrow, mother-in-law.'

It is also used when a word is divided, and the former part is written or printed at the end of one line, and the latter part at the beginning of another. In this case, it is placed at the end of the first line, not at the beginning of the second.

The acute Accent marked thus ´: as, '*Fáncy*.' The Grave thus `: as, '*Fàvor*.'

In English the accentual marks are chiefly used in spelling-books and dictionaries, to mark the syllables which require a particular stress of the voice in pronunciation.

The stress is laid on long and short syllables indiscriminately. In order to distinguish the one from the other, some writers of dictionaries have placed the grave on the former, and the acute on the latter, in this manner: 'Mìnor, míneral, lìvely, líved, rìval, ríver.'

The proper mark to distinguish a long syllable, is this ¯: as, 'Rōsey:' and a short one this ˘: as, 'Fŏlly.' This last mark is called a breve.

A Diæresis, thus marked ¨, consists of two points placed over one of the vowels that would otherwise make a diphthong, and parts them into two syllables: as, 'Creätor, coädjutor, aërial.'

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A section, marked thus §, is the division of a discourse, or chapter, into less parts or portions.

A paragraph ¶ denotes the beginning of a new subject, or a sentence not connected with the foregoing. This character is chiefly used in the Old and New Testaments.

A Quotation " ". Two inverted commas are generally placed at the beginning of a phrase or a passage, which is quoted or transcribed from the speaker or author in his own words; and two apostrophes at the conclusion: as,

"The proper study of mankind is man."

Crotchets or Brackets [ ] serve to enclose a word or sentence, which is to be explained in a note, or the explanation itself, or a word or sentence which is intended to supply some deficiency, or to rectify some mistake.

An Index or hand ☞ points out a remarkable passage, or something that requires particular attention.

A Brace } is used in poetry at the end of a triplet or three lines which have the same rhyme.

Braces are also used to connect a number of words with one common term, and are introduced to prevent a repetition in writing or printing.

An Asterisk, or little star,* directs the reader to some note in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Two or three asterisks generally denote the omission of some letters in a word, or of some bold or indelicate expression, or some defect in the manuscript.

An Ellipsis —— is also used, when some letters in a word, or some words in a verse, are omitted: as, 'The k—g,' for 'the king.'

An Obelisk, which is marked thus † and Parallels thus ‖, together with the letters of the Alphabet, and figures, are used as references to the margin, or bottom of the page.

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CHAPTER VII.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

It was formerly the custom to begin every noun with a capital: but as this practice was troublesome, and gave the writing or printing a crowded and confused appearance, it has been discontinued. It is, however, very proper to begin with a capital,

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period; and, if the two sentences are *totally independent*, after a note of interrogation or exclamation.

But if a number of interrogative or exclamatory sentences are thrown into one general group; or if the construction of the latter sentences depends on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter: as, 'How long, ye simple ones, will ye love simplicity? and the scorners delight in their scorning? and fools hate knowledge?' 'Alas! how different! yet how like the same!'

3. The appellations of the Deity: as, 'God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, the Lord, Providence, the Messiah, the Holy Spirit'

4. Proper names of persons, places, streets, mountains, rivers, ships: as, 'George, York, the Strand, the Alps, the Thames, the Seahorse.'

5. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places. as, 'Grecian, Roman, English, French, and Italian.'

6. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon, or when it is in a direct form: as, "Always remember this ancient maxim: 'Know thyself.'" "Our great lawgiver says, 'Take up thy cross daily, and follow me.'" But when a quotation is brought in obliquely af-

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ter a comma, a capital is unnecessary: as, "Solomon observes, 'that pride goes before destruction.'"

The first word of an example may also very properly begin with a capital: as, 'Temptation proves our virtue.'

7. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books: as, 'Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language;' 'Thomson's Seasons;' 'Rollin's Ancient History.'

8. The first word of every line in poetry.

9. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals: as, 'I write:' 'Hear, O earth!'

Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition

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